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READING IN MODERN EDUCATION



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OFFICES: Boston New York Chicago Atlanta
 San Francisco Dallas London

❧ PREFACE ❧

SINCE 1935, the concept underlying efficient instruction in reading has been profoundly altered. The emergence of a developmental philosophy of education has affected appreciably the basic aims and purposes of instruction. This philosophy has grown out of the impact of experimental findings concerning child development, conclusions based upon scientific studies of the nature and significance of language, and recommendations from educators regarding the relationship of basic human needs to the educative process. Attention is focused by modern educators on the need for functional programs of education and for the provision and maintenance of conditions which will promote continuous growth in all pupils. Education is now considered a process which aims to bring about the maximum development of every child in terms of his unique nature and needs.

This book has been conceived and written in accord with a developmental approach. It is addressed to teachers and prospective teachers in the hope that it will help them realize better the values and purposes of such a concept applied to the reading process. Because teachers, who are engaged in constructive educational endeavor, assert that they need additional help in studying children, in obtaining diversified materials, and in evaluating growth, a major portion of the book is devoted to these issues. Teachers also state that reading retardation continues to be one of the most persistent problems they face. They indicate that the number of poor readers in the elementary school and in the high school is increasing. Practical suggestions are found in this book to help the teacher deal with the retarded reader at every level of instruction. The primary emphasis, however, is not upon remedial reading; instead, developmental reading programs and the prevention of reading retardation are stressed.

Chapter I is devoted to a history of reading instruction and the emergence of the developmental approach; Chapter II treats the child's needs and the significance of the interest factor. These chapters aim to provide the reader with the orientation essential in understanding the developmental philosophy. It is hoped that Chapter III, devoted to readiness for reading, will clarify some controversial issues and will offer practical help. Chapters IV and V present ways by which teachers may promote vocabulary growth and obtain diversified reading materials.

Chapters VI and VII include suggestions for developing habits and skills in reading throughout the elementary school and the high school. Attention is directed to critical reading and to the pupils' purposes and needs for different kinds of reading experience. Perhaps the distinguishing characteristic of this volume resides in the consideration given to meeting the varied needs for reading at different levels of instruction.

Chapters VIII and IX treat evaluation of growth, remedial reading, and case study techniques. The significance of home conditions is recognized, and the relationship of emotional stability to reading proficiency is also treated. Illustrations are offered to demonstrate different ways in which teachers can promote mental health through reading. Chapter X gives a glimpse of reading programs of the future and presents an overview of the characteristics of the wholesome, efficient teacher of reading.

In preparing this book, the author has drawn heavily upon the work of his colleagues. To Professors Arthur I. Gates, William S. Gray, and others, he is grateful for the contributions they have made to a better understanding of the reading process. To Arnold Gesell and his associates, he is indebted for their exposition of the developmental philosophy. To Lewis M. Terman, acknowledgment is due for his great work in revealing the nature and extent of individual differences.

Since much of this book is the expression of cooperative work in various schools, the author wishes to acknowledge the contributions of many teachers in Chicago and in Evanston. To children, young

people, parents, and students who have worked with him, he is also greatly indebted. His obligations are heavy to Dr. David Kopel, Dr. Lou LaBrant, and Mr. Trevor K. Serviss, who were associated with him first as students and later as colleagues. To Miss Helen Macpherson and Miss Ann Bowman, the author wishes to express his appreciation and gratitude for help in the preparation of the manuscript. Perhaps his greatest obligation is to Miss Ann Coomer, his assistant and colleague, who has participated in a number of the research projects reported in this volume.

The research projects were made possible through the support of Dean Arthur R. Tebbutt and the research committee of the Graduate School of Northwestern University. For this support, the author is deeply grateful. To Dean J. M. Hughes of the School of Education acknowledgment is made for interest and encouragement.

Gratitude is expressed to the authors whose work is cited and to the editors and publishers who granted permission to use the quotations. Quotations throughout the book are accompanied by numbers which identify complete references to author and publisher found in the bibliography at the end of each chapter.

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❧ CHAPTER I ❧

Trends in American Reading Instruction

NEVER before in the history of American education has a re-appraisal of the practices in reading instruction seemed more necessary or appropriate. Certainly in no period in the past have teachers expressed so keen an interest in reading problems, so great a demand for clarification of objectives, and so widespread a desire for help in improving the effectiveness of instruction throughout the elementary school, the high school, and college. Again and again, supervisors and teachers have indicated to the author of this book that there are three areas in which the need for assistance is most pressing: (1) in studying pupils and in determining their varied purposes for reading at different levels; (2) in obtaining diversified instructional materials of appropriate difficulty; and (3) in recording and appraising pupil growth in reading. Accordingly, this book will attempt to provide teachers with help in these three areas. The first chapter will trace the history of reading instruction and will indicate present-day trends. In subsequent chapters suggestions will be offered for meeting recurring problems encountered by teachers and supervisors in efforts to improve instruction in reading.

THE EVOLUTION OF TEXTBOOKS IN READING

Few adults on examining an attractive modern textbook in reading are aware of the many factors in the history of American education that have contributed to this product. Even a brief scrutiny of the origin and growth of the reading textbook will disclose significant steps in the progress of educational theory and practice;

moreover, it will show the influence of research in child development and of emerging concepts of the learning process.

In many ways the most significant book in early American life was the *New England Primer*, published about 1683. It was usually oblong shaped and covered with wood. The most frequently published edition was about two and a half inches by four and a half inches in size. The print and illustrations were necessarily small. The size, appearance, and physical features offer a strong contrast to the modern textbook.

Throughout the many editions of this book, the content remained basically the same. First the alphabet was introduced and lists of words, containing two to six syllables, were presented. The Lord's Prayer and the Creed usually followed; then came the famous couplets and letters. Of course, didactic material was not lacking. For example, one passage, *An Alphabet of Lessons for Youth*, offered admonitions in the form of sentences from the Bible, chosen to follow in order of the alphabet. Although much of the material was taken from the Bible, some of it was paraphrased, and some original verse was included. (35, 36)

In colonial days, the hornbook was used as a supplement to the *Primer* in teaching boys and girls to read. The hornbook, however, was misnamed since it was not actually a book. It consisted of a short-handled paddle made of wood or of cardboard, four or five inches by two and a half inches in size. A leaf of vellum or paper pasted upon the paddle was inscribed with the following: a cross; the alphabet in both capital and small letters (in the earliest hornbooks the alphabet was written in the form of a cross); the vowels and vowel consonant combinations; the exorcism: "In the name of the Father and of the Sonne and of the Holy Ghost, Amen"; the Lord's Prayer; and at the end, Roman numerals. The paper side of the hornbook was covered with a transparent sheet of horn which was held in place by strips of brass fastened to the edges of the paddle with hand-forged tacks. A string through the handle enabled the child either to attach the hornbook to his clothing or to hang it around his neck.

A variation of the hornbook first appeared in England in a form known as the battledore. This toy paddle was used by children in playing battledore and shuttlecock. The letters of the alphabet were

either painted upon or cut into the paddle. Another ingenious device, designed for girls and used widely in colonial homes and dame schools, was the sampler. It was made by embroidering upon cloth the alphabet and excerpts from the Bible (including the Lord's Prayer), hymns, and sometimes the child's own creative verse. Second in popularity to the *New England Primer*, these devices constituted an important phase in learning to read during the Puritan era of American life.

An important contribution to reading instruction was made by Noah Webster, who constructed a series of readers under the title *Grammatical Institute*. This series was published first as a single book. Later, about 1790, the volume was offered as three separate texts. One of these, *The American Spelling Book*, referred to as the Blue-back Speller because of its blue cover, became one of the most influential books America has known.

Other books of this period, although moralistic in tone, revealed the influence of a nationalistic spirit. For example, John Pierpont presented some materials by American writers in his four-book series of readers. The inclusion of these selections was a departure from the practice of earlier compilers, whose texts had drawn upon English authors only.

Lyman Cobb was probably the first to compile a carefully graded set of readers in this country. Several other series, appearing between 1840 and 1860, reflected a trend toward the establishment of school grades. The best known of these readers were prepared by William Holmes McGuffey.

From 1836 until 1920, it is estimated that more than 122,000,000 copies of the *McGuffey Readers* were sold (38). Many factors contributed to the popularity of these books throughout so long a period. A very important item, no doubt, was the emphasis given to commendable traits of character. As Henry Ford stated: "Truth, honesty, fair dealing, initiative, invention, self-reliance — these were the fundamentals of the *McGuffey Readers*. They are as timeless now as they were then." (5B, p. 75)

The *McGuffey Readers* played a significant role in determining the attitudes of our people, and were instrumental also in shaping literary taste. Mark Sullivan remarked that "to probably nine out of ten average Americans, what taste of literature they got from

McGuffey's was all they ever had; what literature the children brought into the home in *McGuffey's Readers* was all that ever came. Broad classical reading was decidedly not general. McGuffey, in short, because of the leverage of his *Readers*, had a large part in forming the mind of America." (38, p. 15)

During the period just prior to the beginning of the twentieth century, textbooks began to show an improvement in mechanical make-up. For example, the textbooks constructed by Edward G. Ward and published by Silver, Burdett and Company in 1894 were set in more readable type than that formerly employed. Ward introduced somewhat varied content and stressed the significance of the child's acquiring a basic stock of sight words before phonetic analysis was attempted. The Ward readers, although popular, did not attain the widespread endorsement that the McGuffey series received.

In many of the readers which came into favor after 1900, story material was used as a basis for developing habits and skills. Provision was made in some series for a gradual introduction of new words and concepts, and for more varied and meaningful content than that previously included in textbooks.

The reading textbook today is an attractively designed, profusely illustrated, interesting book which introduces boys and girls to a variety of well written stories. Other types of reading materials are, of course, included, since one aim of the basal program is to develop an interest in reading various types of literature. Provision for establishing skills is made in practice books designed to accompany the readers as well as in exercises suggested in the teachers' guides.

Thus the modern program seeks not only to foster efficient reading habits, but also to establish permanent interests in reading, and to cultivate tastes and appreciations. These objectives are most clearly reflected by the literary quality and general excellence of some modern textbooks. As Earl E. Welch states in a symposium on reading instruction:

Textbooks [today] are better from the standpoint of sheer literary quality. We have passed the stage when simple exposition is considered good enough. Certainly simplicity and clarity are essential, but something more is needed. The intangible characteristic of style has been given much more weight. More effort has

been made to secure authors who have real ability in writing for children. Editors have been more concerned to preserve style in the editing of manuscript. The result, again, is more interesting textbooks. (13, p. 218)

CHANGE IN METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

The alphabet method, we have seen, was the first approach used in this country to teach boys and girls to read. In fact, historians indicate that this method was predominant in America until the last quarter of the nineteenth century. Although there were many variations in teaching by the alphabet method, the following is perhaps typical. First the child memorized the names of the letters and identified both the capital and the small forms. Spelling and pronouncing syllables of two letters followed; next came syllables of three letters; and finally monosyllabic words were presented. Larger units, including phrases, sentences, and stories, were then introduced. Pupils were also required to memorize the Ten Commandments and other biblical materials. Oral reading was stressed, since literate members of Puritan families read Scripture aloud to relatives or friends.

The word method was advocated in Europe by educators such as Comenius long before it attracted followers in America. Samuel Worcester, in 1828, appears to have been the first American author to suggest the adoption of the word method. But it was not until about 1850 that this approach was popularized through the widespread use of the series of readers by Bumstead and by Webb.

Despite the general acceptance of the word method, protests were numerous. Parents became disturbed when they discovered that children did not know the names of the letters in words they could pronounce. Additional criticisms of the word method arose when it was found that children taught in this manner were unprepared to attack new words in unfamiliar settings. To remedy this situation, phonic systems were developed. They had been used earlier in other countries, but they did not become popular in America until the latter quarter of the nineteenth century. The phonic method, however, soon proved to have serious limitations. Educators found that children attempted laboriously, and often with little success, to spell by sound. Subsequently, modifications of the phonic approach,

called phonetic systems, were developed. These systems involved an attempt to provide a symbol for each sound. It soon became evident that so much effort was required in deciphering the phonetic symbols that word meaning was frequently sacrificed; moreover, it was found that children often spelled words incorrectly because of false impressions thus acquired.

During the last quarter of the nineteenth century and the first two decades of the twentieth century, the word method was gradually replaced in many schools by phrase, sentence, and story approaches to reading. These methods emphasized thought-getting rather than word mastery. Phonics or phonetics, however, was not neglected, and oral reading was stressed.

After World War I, rapid silent reading was generally conceded to be the primary objective of instruction. A few enthusiastic proponents of silent reading advocated the complete abandonment of instruction in oral reading. But most authorities recommended a judicious use both of oral and of silent reading techniques. Objective tests and practice exercises also were widely employed. In fact, during this period a widespread interest in objective approaches led to the development of eye training devices and other instruments. Methods of instruction tended to overemphasize the elements thought to comprise general habits in reading, and to neglect the specific abilities needed to satisfy children's purposes for reading at different levels. For example, many courses of study and guides included provision for acquiring the ability to understand the central thought of a paragraph, to note details, or to follow directions in different types of short narrative selections, but gave very little attention to the development of proficiency in reading social studies or science materials. Moreover, the various aspects of critical reading were generally neglected.

The trend at present is to treat reading as one aspect of a language arts program and to utilize methods of teaching which are consonant with this objective. Above all else, meaningful reading is accorded primary importance (14). To be meaningful in the fullest sense, presentations must not only be understood and assimilated, but their content must also be evaluated and interpreted. The pupil's reaction to the facts or ideas presented is viewed as the most significant feature of his reading. Thus, meaningful reading stresses

not only the pupil's understanding and clear comprehension of different types of presentations, but also his ability to select, interpret, and apply facts or ideas according to his purpose for reading. This broader view of the reading process necessitates a distinct change and extension of practices. As the Committee responsible for *The Thirty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I* anticipated, the adoption of this "broader concept" of reading requires:

. . . a much more comprehensive program of reading instruction than [that which] has been provided in the past. It will not be sufficient to plan merely for the development of habits that underlie accurate recognition, speed, and comprehension in silent reading, and fluent oral reading. Equally, if not more, important is the need for the development and refinement of habits of interpretation, critical evaluation, and the application of the facts apprehended. (29, p. 28)

It is evident that the present-day approach emphasizes the necessity for starting the reading process with materials that are close to the child's own experience and continuing with instruction in subject matter that fulfills his changing needs for reading. Thus, a concern for the pupil and his welfare has replaced the primary interest in methods of instruction. Moreover, in a balanced reading program the selection of materials of instruction is governed by the characteristics of each group and the ends to be attained through reading.

DEVELOPMENT OF PROFESSIONAL BOOKS FOR TEACHERS

Professional books on reading paralleled somewhat the trends disclosed in reading textbooks. Edmund B. Huey's *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading*, one of the first professional books in this field, will long be remembered for its penetrating analysis of the physiology and psychology of reading. (20)

Another early book of significance was *The Reading Process* by William A. Smith, a volume published in 1922, which traced the history of reading instruction and described the status of scientific knowledge concerning the reading process (36). But the most influential professional volume devoted to reading was without doubt *The Twenty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study*

of *Education, Part I—Report of the National Committee on Reading* (28). This Yearbook was, in part at least, the result of a rather widespread realization of the relatively low educational status of youth. Moreover, studies of the reading habits of adults showed clearly that schools were failing to develop a permanent interest in reading as a leisure pursuit. Many adults were found to read little beyond the headlines in the daily papers. And a considerable proportion had failed to acquire the basic habits and skills in reading. These facts were set forth in *The Twenty-fourth Yearbook, Part I*, in which it was pointed out that, from the standpoint of the child, reading instruction should serve:

1. To provide rich and varied experience
2. To develop permanent interests in reading as a leisure pursuit
3. To develop the habits and skills essential in effective silent and oral reading

Included in *The Twenty-fourth Yearbook, Part I*, were diagnostic charts and descriptions of remedial procedures. Although this volume was significant in showing the need for remedial reading, its greatest contribution, some investigators believe, was its emphasis on the responsibility of the school to develop permanent interests in reading as a leisure pursuit through a carefully planned, systematic program of instruction in reading.

Another yearbook on reading, which also affected teaching practices greatly, appeared a little more than a decade later. *The Thirty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I—The Teaching of Reading: A Second Report* traced progress during a decade and directed attention to the need for a broader interpretation of the reading process. (29)

The Yearbook Committee pointed to the following “desirable developments and trends during the past decade”: (1) a general increase of interest in reading problems; (2) recognition of the fact that every teacher should be considered, in varying degrees, a teacher of reading; (3) a gain in the amount of time devoted to guidance in reading in different subject areas or curriculum fields; (4) progress in developing and applying a more justifiable concept of reading readiness; (5) enrichment of “the reading period”; (6) introduction of more readable and interesting material in all curricu-

lum fields; (7) increase in amount of reading materials associated with the introduction of "library methods as contrasted with textbook methods of study"; (8) the tendency to organize materials to a greater extent in thought-provoking units or in areas of interest; (9) improvement in methods of instruction traceable to emphasis on meaning and thought-getting in reading; and (10) increased recognition of varied motives for reading and of children's wide interests. In addition, the Committee cited as commendable: the greater recognition of the importance of adequate library facilities; the introduction of varied forms of grouping children within classes so as to provide more fully for individual differences; the increase in the number and quality of reading tests; and progress in diagnostic and remedial work. (29)

Critical reading was emphasized in Witty and Kopel's *Reading and the Educative Process*, a volume which, appearing in 1939, also stressed the need for extension of the concept underlying reading instruction. In this book, the authors indicated that: (1) reading readiness should be considered a broad developmental process including many factors in addition to mental ability and physical development; (2) interests and needs of boys and girls should receive greater attention in a developmental reading program; (3) diagnosis of children's needs should be comprehensive; (4) evaluation of growth in reading should include an appraisal of children's attitudes toward reading and their success in reading different kinds of subject matter; (5) reading materials should be extensive, and chosen in accord with children's purposes; (6) reading should be considered an all-school function with every teacher assuming responsibility for fostering growth in reading. The significance of home conditions was recognized, and emphasis was placed on the role of experience as a basic concern in all phases of reading instruction. Finally, instruction in reading was viewed as one aspect of the language arts program, dependent upon the effective development of related skills in oral and written expression (42). Other professional books in the field of reading followed similar trends, as did monographs reporting the results of reading conferences (3, 4, 13, 15, 16). As the titles indicate, attention was given to reading instruction both in the elementary school and in the secondary school. And the value of reading in relation to child growth was thoroughly explored.

READING INSTRUCTION DURING WORLD WAR II

During World War II an unusual opportunity arose to test some of the approaches to reading which had emerged as products of the preceding years of educational research. In order to satisfy the need for man power in the Armed Forces, it was necessary to induct large numbers of illiterate and non-English-speaking men. Special Training Units were organized to give the academic training these men needed to become useful soldiers. In these units they participated in an educational program characterized by: (a) definite objectives, (b) high motive and interest, (c) careful study and grouping of individuals, (d) use of functional methods and materials in small classes, (e) wide application of visual aids, (f) hygienic conditions insuring a sense of security and general well-being, (g) provision for success from the start and for steady progress, and (h) the use of thoroughly trained, enthusiastic instructors.

Under the above conditions, it became possible for functionally illiterate and non-English-speaking men to acquire the reading skills needed in the amazingly short period of eight weeks. The author will describe the steps in this accomplishment elsewhere in this book, and will indicate some of the implications for the classroom teacher.

Perhaps the chief contribution of this work resides in the clear-cut portrayal it affords of the essential characteristics of a well rounded program of reading instruction. Such a program is characterized by: (a) definite objectives, (b) provision for an orderly mastery of basic habits and skills, (c) application of appropriate techniques in appraising pupils' needs and in evaluating their growth, (d) the use of functional materials and methods of instruction in classes small enough in size to permit individual guidance, (e) the appropriate use of visual and auditory materials, and (f) the maintenance of hygienic conditions for learning under skilled teachers.

RECENT TRENDS IN READING

The period immediately following World War II brought a renewed interest in reading instruction and an increase in the publication of professional books and materials for teachers of reading. In fact, one extremely comprehensive book contains approximately

750 double-column pages (1). Bibliographies of articles and books are so voluminous that they are now published in single monographs. Thus Betts and Betts (1945) have prepared an 8278-item compilation of studies and reports related to reading (2). Another bibliography, by Traxler and Townsend, entitled *Another Five Years of Research in Reading*, contains 527 annotated entries (39). One of the most conspicuous features of this professional literature is the frequent reference made to the need for developmental and corrective reading programs for high school and college students.

Some teachers of English and of other subjects in the high school have been greatly influenced by research and investigation in the field of reading. Many of these teachers have long been conscious of the heterogeneity among secondary pupils, the extent of the problem of reading retardation, and the need for developmental reading programs.*

These teachers have abandoned the idea that the elementary school is the agency solely responsible for instruction in reading. In fact, large numbers of secondary school teachers recognize as desirable the following "hallmarks of an effective reading program":

1. Every high school teacher is [to some degree] a teacher of reading.
2. Instruction is geared to pupil needs.
3. Every pupil is reached by the program.
4. There is an ample supply of appropriate material.
5. The reading program is diversified and well balanced.
6. Reading experiences are pleasant and inviting.
7. Attention is given to pupil growth in each major phase of reading achievement, especially: greater flexibility in reading habits, greater power of comprehension, growth in pupils' vocabularies, [and] more efficient use of reading in study situations.
8. Coordinated effort characterizes the reading program. (27, pp. 36-37)

It is generally conceded that the modern high school should continue to give help and guidance in reading. In high schools which have attempted to provide reading programs, there is a wide varia-

* For a more extended discussion of this topic, see the author's discussion in Part II of *The Forty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*. (46)

tion in practice. A special teacher frequently attempts to carry on the entire program. Sometimes the teacher of English assumes responsibility for all instruction in reading. However, some secondary schools are introducing more comprehensive developmental programs which elicit the cooperative efforts of teachers in all areas of instruction. The English or social studies teacher occasionally assumes the temporary leadership of this endeavor with full recognition that this responsibility will be shared increasingly by other teachers. The primary aim of such programs is to enlist the services of the entire secondary school staff in an effort to improve reading efficiency.

Although this movement is scarcely started, there is evidence that it is gaining momentum and approval (34, 45, 46). A significant beginning has already been made by large numbers of high school teachers who are studying with the author of this book. After considerable discussion of the reading problem, these teachers usually conclude that steps should be taken: (a) to determine the reading competencies within each class, (b) to develop methods for promoting the mastery of the vocabulary essential in each subject, and (c) to secure more suitable, diversified reading materials. Accordingly, these teachers administer tests and make informal estimates of the silent and oral reading abilities within their classes. Then they make a study of the vocabulary loads of different assignments. Discussion techniques are used to assure a general understanding of commonly met terms; and direct experience, pictorial presentations, and wide reading are employed to foster clear comprehension of new or unfamiliar concepts. Consideration of the wide range of ability within each class leads these teachers to assemble materials of varied difficulty in pamphlets, magazines, and inexpensive editions of books. Teachers are helped in this quest for suitable materials by recently compiled lists. For example, Ruth Strang and her associates offer helpful suggestions for obtaining suitable reading materials for high school students (37). And Glenn M. Blair cites the one hundred books most enjoyed by retarded readers in senior high schools (3). Although there is much still to be accomplished, these beginning efforts afford evidence of noteworthy progress in improving reading instruction in the high school.

Leaders in the field of English and in education concur in stressing

the desirability of relating reading experience to the purposes of the student (18, 24, 34, 46). Hence, programs at the secondary level aim to satisfy the student's need for (a) efficient methods of reading different types of subject matter, (b) reading experience which will help the student understand and adjust himself with increasing success and satisfaction to his personal environment, (c) reading experience which will assist him in becoming a more effective citizen in and out of school, and (d) reading experience that will result in a more enjoyable and profitable pattern of leisure reading.

Recently, an added impetus has been given to the above approach by students of child growth who cite the role of reading experience in the fulfillment of the pupils' developmental needs. For example, Robert J. Havighurst points out that education should help boys and girls achieve certain of their developmental needs or "tasks." A "developmental task" is defined as "a kind of behavior that a person must perform satisfactorily if he is to live a satisfactory adult life" (18, p. 54). Reading is stressed as a significant means of helping adolescents achieve the following "developmental tasks": (1) adjusting to age mates; (2) achieving independence of parents and family; (3) selecting and preparing for an occupation; (4) achieving social responsibility and social loyalty; and (5) developing the self. The "development of the self" is referred to as "the culminating and integrating task of a young person." (18, p. 57)

Many teachers of English are employing reading materials effectively to help each pupil gain a better understanding of himself and of other individuals (46). Novels and short stories are considered a basic source for obtaining this type of information. In fiction, pupils encounter numerous incidents in which the central characters experience conflict, uncertainty, and anxiety concerning problems which beset most adolescents. Directed reading of this type of literature enlarges the student's understanding of human personality. Under expert guidance students arrive at a better understanding of themselves and their own problems. And they achieve also a better understanding of others. The teacher's role is to offer counsel based on a thorough knowledge of the nature of each student. This effort is not considered as psychiatric therapy; it is rather an attempt to help pupils acquire an appreciation of their own resources and their own capabilities for meeting the problems encountered in a normal life.

Broader considerations associated with economic or social status, religion, and vocations are also stressed by the teacher of English in the modern school. Through encouraging and guiding the reading of fiction, the teacher helps students attain mature social values and an increased sensitivity to human relationships and responsibilities. Through nonfiction, too, horizons of social understanding are broadened.

The modern teacher is interested in providing reading instruction for another broad purpose: to offer students adventure and entertainment — elements which lead to permanent interest in reading. These factors are often important in determining the satisfaction which a pupil displays when he discovers a volume which for him is a “great book.” (46)

Fully aware of the satisfactions and values in reading, the effective teacher appreciates the fact that the meaning and the significance of reading are determined by the relationship of this activity to the student's total life pattern. Accordingly, in her efforts to help the student develop into a harmoniously adjusted personality, she views reading as one activity that in association with others may aid in attaining this goal.

In the modern school, the value of books, old and new, is recognized, and their worth is judged by the contribution they make to the students' growth. Enthusiasm for a limited number of books may prove an asset to some teachers — provided they understand that books are “good” *if* they are related to worthy interests and to significant needs of pupils. However, a balanced reading program necessitates the use of various kinds of printed materials — books, pamphlets, magazines, and newspapers. And it requires recourse to reading materials presented as informative prose, fiction, poetry, drama, and biography. Moreover, such a program recognizes the significance of related media of communication such as the radio and the motion picture.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

The foregoing modern view of reading is based on a concept which differs in important respects from that which was held formerly by many educators and teachers. Reading was once considered essentially a skill, and proficiency was regarded as an end to be

achieved through drills and exercises. We see that modern reading programs stress: first, the pupil and his development; and second, the significant and fortunate role that experiences in reading may assume in promoting his happiness and continuous growth. In assuming the modern position, we do not disregard or underestimate our responsibility for safeguarding each child's acquisition of the fundamental habits and skills.

The modern concept of the reading process has evolved slowly. With its development, there has been an accompanying gradual improvement in reading methods and materials, and another era in the history of education has emerged. Despite advances, there is a regrettable lag between knowledge and practice. The lag is traceable in part to the failure of teachers to stress reading as a meaningful, functional skill. It is unknown whether reading attainment is actually poorer or better today than formerly. Complicating the problem of answering this question are factors such as the great increase in the number of pupils attending secondary schools, the lack of accurate criteria for judging reading ability, and the new and greater demands for reading skills of different kinds. It is clear that changes in the nature and variety of instructional materials have not paralleled changing needs; consequently, many types of reading matter are unsuitable or too difficult for the high school pupil of today.

Perhaps the greatest problem of the modern school grows out of the range of individual differences within classes and the varied purposes for which pupils must read. This problem is reflected by the serious reading retardation of many pupils in the middle grades of the elementary school. In the junior and senior high school, reading retardation is even more frequent and serious. In order to take their places as worthy citizens of tomorrow, pupils in our schools today must be led to comprehend and to evaluate the facts presented in varied printed forms. As the author of this book has repeatedly emphasized, such an effort should be looked upon as part of a larger program in communication that leads children and youth to speak clearly, to write effectively, to listen intelligently, and to read critically. Through such an approach, it is possible to equip young people for responsible citizenship.

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❧ CHAPTER II ❧

The Role of Interest and Motive in the Reading Process

INTEREST in mental hygiene in the classroom began about three or four decades ago. At first, the emphasis was clearly upon abnormal behavior or disorder. Gradually this concept of the role of mental hygiene was altered and expanded. Authorities now stress normal growth and emphasize factors which foster the maximum development of every boy and girl. They direct attention to the dependence of the mental health of pupils upon the attitudes and values of the teacher. Accordingly, the conditions which relate to the mental health of teachers are considered no less important than the situations which are associated with promoting the development of boys and girls. Moreover, since home conditions and the attitudes of parents influence the child's mental health, the services of the home are sought by the school in a mutual effort to bring about continuous growth and to prevent behavior problems in children.

BASIC NEEDS OF THE CHILD

Workers in the field of mental health concur on the importance of basic needs (3, 30). It is generally agreed that:

- Children need physical well-being and health
- Children need self-esteem
- Children need social recognition
- Children need to develop an appreciation of values associated with democratic living

It is the responsibility of the home to offer children an atmosphere in which sturdy physical growth is nourished. Parents should assume

full responsibility for providing the young child with food, clothing, and other necessities for wholesome physical development. But they should recognize their duty also to foster mental health. In fact, children need affection, security, and sympathetic guidance under consistently stable, reassuring conditions quite as much as they need an adequate physical environment and proper care. Many modern parents are recognizing these needs and are striving to provide conditions which will safeguard the child's mental as well as his physical health. Moreover, many parents are trying to develop a comprehensive program to insure the continuous growth of their children. Increasingly they are following the recommendations for wholesome nurture set forth in books such as Aldriches' *Babies Are Human Beings* (1). In this book the necessity for careful study and systematic observation to ascertain the unique nature and needs of each child is convincingly demonstrated. Such intelligent and wholesome advice has resulted in a rather widespread appreciation on the part of modern parents of the needs of the infant and young child.

Basic needs are no less important when the child starts to school than they are during the preschool period. Proper food and rest, good vision and hearing, and general vitality are real aids to learning. Mental health is necessary also if the child is to make rapid progress in his school work. Many teachers recognize that it is essential for the child to maintain or develop self-confidence, independence, and resourcefulness in thought and action. They understand that these traits are nourished by the judicious use of recognition and praise (9). Some psychologists have referred to the status attained by the child through his appreciation of his own success as the fulfillment of an integrative need; they know that a harmonious, balanced life-design is rarely achieved unless the child regards himself as competent and successful. As this appreciation grows in the child, it should be balanced by the development of a parallel respect for the needs and worth of others.

It has been pointed out that the wide range of ability within the typical classroom makes difficult the provision of conditions through which every child may gain recognition. A classroom rich in opportunities for varied experience and individual expression is likely to be one in which every child has a chance to achieve success. Under such conditions boys and girls learn to respect the achieve-

ments of their classmates and to accept different levels of competency with appreciation and understanding.

BACKGROUND FOR UNDERSTANDING THE CHILD

The effective teacher must achieve a rather complete understanding of the nature and needs of every boy and girl in her class. How can this be accomplished? There are, to be sure, professional books and materials which are helpful in this quest. Teachers may secure a good foundation by studying Gesell and Ilg's *Infant and Child in the Culture of Today* (15) and *The Child from Five to Ten* (14). These remarkable books describe in clear, informal language the child's development at twelve levels from birth through age five, and at subsequent intervals from five to ten. In the first of these books, "Behavior Profiles" are employed to summarize the most typical traits and growth trends for each of the early levels. These profiles are filled with authoritative facts, penetrating insights, and practical suggestions for child guidance. Following each "Behavior Profile" is a section entitled "Behavior Day" which sets forth details of care for the young child under headings such as sleep, feeding, elimination, and so forth. The significance of individual variation is recognized and stressed.

Since it is impossible to understand conduct and behavior at any age level without a consideration of antecedents, it is desirable for all teachers of primary children to obtain a comprehensive picture of the growth of infants and young children. For it is in the early years that many patterns of behavior appear and are shaped. Because of these facts Gesell and Ilg state: "The professional training of school-teachers should include a liberalizing acquaintance with the developmental psychology of infancy to offset the stilted textbook limitations of an educational psychology too narrowly based on a study of 'the learning process.'" (15, p. 4)

The significance for human welfare of such an understanding is stressed in the following quotation:

The most ameliorative force that can be released in the years of reconstruction which lie ahead is an intensified conservation of the development of infants and children. Such conservation depends upon favorable political and economic arrangements; but these in turn are dependent on scientific knowledge, as well as

on the aspirations which come from humane traditions, from the arts, and from religion. We cannot conserve the mental health of children, we cannot make democracy a genuine folkway unless we bring into the homes of the people a developmental philosophy of child care rooted in scientific research.

A science of man, accordingly, becomes a most creative force in the atomic age. It will heighten and multiply human values. It will diffuse among peoples, among common men, and among leaders of state that increase of intelligibility which is necessary for mutual understanding. In a more sincerely sustained effort to understand children, men and women of maturity will better comprehend themselves and their fellows. (14, p. 454)

STUDYING CHILDREN

Teachers are discovering many ways to secure useful information about boys and girls (2, 39). Some employ anecdotal records and others use the diary method. In an effort to obtain significant evidence of the child's adjustment and habitual behavior, some teachers utilize interest inventories (36). In informal interviews, the teacher and the pupil discuss topics such as favorite leisure activities, hobbies, play preferences, attitudes, movie and reading habits, radio listening, vocational ambitions, familiarity with the community, and conditions in the home. After an interview is held, the teacher evaluates the child's responses in an effort to estimate the adequacy of the child's play life, his background, his group experience, and his strong interests.

The use of an inventory is but one of a number of approaches designed to yield information about children's personal adjustment and social orientation (21). Another procedure that has been used widely in recent years is the anecdotal method (2). The anecdotal record, in its simplest form, is merely a citation of significant facts that the teacher observes about a child. For example, the teacher notes that John tends to be uncooperative in group projects in the classroom; upon completion of his own work, he invariably takes it to her for approval. Investigation reveals that overzealous parents have made John the center of attention and have encouraged him to seek adult approval on almost every occasion. A desire for adult recognition has been transferred to the classroom. John, she ob-

serves, is a well-adjusted boy who is popular on the playground. In various activities, he is willing to take his turn and to accept superior accomplishment on the part of others. These observations are entered in the anecdotal record. Study of the record and of other data leads the teacher to conclude that it will be desirable for her to try to help John's parents build a sounder concept of wholesome development, and to help John learn to work cooperatively in the classroom.

Occasionally the teacher may desire to employ a check list and ask the pupils to indicate those activities in which they have participated and found greatest pleasure during the preceding week. Lists have been assembled which include: sports, games, sedentary activities (such as reading, listening to the radio, or watching contests), and creative pursuits. (20, 30)

Employing the anecdotal method, an inventory, a check list, or comparable techniques, constitutes only a single phase of the teacher's responsibility for continuous study of the child. On the playground, during excursions, and throughout numerous other activities, the teacher will seek additional clues to children's interests and needs. After worth-while interests have been identified, provision must be made so that such interests will be expressed and directed into appropriate channels. That the school typically offers little opportunity for the expression of interests may be seen by examining school practice in almost any subject area. For example, in the field of written composition it will be found that occasions for writing about significant experience are rare in many schools. Thus in one school a check list was used and "important" activities from the standpoint of the child were identified. Investigation established the fact that the children had been given few opportunities to write about their personally significant experiences. Moreover, in no class did there appear to be an adequate opportunity for the pupils to share with their classmates the compositions they wrote. To provide for this expression, a program in language development was initiated, and a search was made for opportunities through which sharing of interests might take place. Conferences were arranged, discussion groups were set up, committees were formed to prepare reports for publication, and various other activities reflected the new concern for sharing written products. In fact, the sharing of ex-

perience became an ideal which permeated all endeavor throughout this school.

The results of this program were far reaching. It was found that the mechanics of writing grew better as the children exchanged points of view and suggested changes in compositions to bring about greater clarity or accuracy of expression. Moreover, the quality of the children's writing improved greatly. This project demonstrated that the teacher who desires to improve the skills will find the effectiveness of her work enhanced by the use of activities which are guided and sustained by group sanction.

Reading, as well as writing, has many social aspects, particularly in childhood. Learning to read is to a considerable degree a group activity, wherein discussion, reading aloud, dramatization, and other forms of oral expression play significant roles. Even in the upper grades, children should be encouraged to talk over stories they have read, to read aloud favorite selections, and to take part in dramatization and other forms of oral expression. Thus they will continue to find pleasure and satisfaction in group activities associated with oral reading and oral expression.

In the development of silent reading skills, the teacher will employ facts obtained by the use of interest inventories and other techniques as guides in helping each child find silent reading experience suitable to extend and heighten worthy individual interests. Group interests will also be used as the basis for initiating various types of group activities or projects to which contributions may be made through silent reading. Through these approaches, a strong incentive will be provided for the rapid acquisition of effective reading habits and for the establishment of permanent interest in reading as a voluntary pursuit.

PLAY AND WORK PREFERENCES

Investigators have utilized a number of techniques in studying various aspects of play and recreation. For example, one investigator reported the favorite indoor play activities of children in the kindergarten and the first two grades. Boys showed their strongest interest in activities in which building equipment was used. Modeling and painting also were favored; drawing and cardboard construction, although less popular, were well liked. Water color

painting, clay modeling, and sewing held high favor among the girls. Less interest was shown by girls than by boys in building materials, although as the girls grew older interest in activities involving construction increased. In this study, as in several others, boys were reported to be much more active and vigorous in their play than girls. (17, 36)

One of the pioneer studies of the play activities of elementary and secondary school pupils was reported by Lehman and Witty two decades ago (20). An unpublished study made in the Chicago area by Witty and Coomer in 1946 yielded data somewhat similar to those reported by Lehman and Witty. Some results of the former study are shown in Table I. Comparison of the following brief summary of the 1946 study with the facts presented in Table I will reveal a persistence of many play preferences. In the 1946 study, it was found that by the time boys and girls are six years old they begin to show differences in their favored pursuits. The six-year-old girl likes to play with dolls and miniature furniture. She enjoys "playing house" and making things to use in a playhouse. She participates in some group games such as "drop the handkerchief," but she also takes part in individual activities such as "jumping rope" or "playing jacks." When boys are six years of age they like best to participate in more active but relatively unorganized games such as "tag" and "hide-and-seek." Most boys eight or nine years of age find pleasure in spinning tops, flying kites, playing marbles, and building houses. They enjoy "playing cowboy" and similar games in which they pretend to be aviators, soldiers, sailors, or marines. Other group activities, such as playing catch or games the boys refer to as baseball or football, are also popular; but these pursuits are unlike the more formal competitive sports enjoyed by older boys. By the time boys are twelve years of age they turn to more highly organized games such as tennis and baseball. From twelve to fifteen there appears to be a sharp decrease in the amount of active, spontaneous play, and a tendency develops on the part of both boys and girls to take part to a greater extent in sedentary pursuits. Going to the movies, listening to the radio, riding in an automobile, and watching contests gain favor during this period.

By comparing the foregoing play preferences with those reported by Lehman and Witty in 1927, one sees that some play activities

TABLE I

THE TEN MOST POPULAR PLAY ACTIVITIES AT AGES 5, 10, 15

(Adaptation by Pressey from Lehman-Witty Studies, 20; 22, p. 116; 36)

<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>
FIVE YEARS	
Playing with a ball	Playing house
Playing with blocks	Playing with dolls
Playing with a wagon	Playing with a ball
Playing house	Playing school
Playing horse	Drawing
Hide-and-seek	Mulberry bush
Playing tag	Playing with blocks
Drawing	Skipping
Playing school	Making things
Playing in a sand pile	Jumping rope
TEN YEARS	
Football	Playing the piano
Baseball	Going to the movies
Boxing	Looking at the "funny" paper
Playing catch	Playing with dolls
Riding a bicycle	Roller skating
Basketball	Riding in an automobile
Wrestling	Reading books
Playing cowboy	Playing school
Roller skating	Jacks
Marbles	Listening to the phonograph
FIFTEEN YEARS	
Basketball	Reading books
Football	Going to the movies
Baseball	Social dancing
Driving an automobile	Playing the piano
Tennis	Riding in an automobile
Watching athletic sports	Having dates
Hunting	Watching athletic sports
Going to the movies	Going to parties, picnics
Boxing	Basketball
Reading books	Doing gymnastics

appear from decade to decade with little change in popularity. In fact, the changes necessary to make Table I represent today's trends in play would involve chiefly a shift in the rank of some items associated with the increased popularity of the radio, the comic book, and the picture magazine. A few additions of play activities traceable

to progress in aviation and other technical fields would also be necessary.

An almost universal interest of boys and girls deserves special comment. Making collections starts when children are about six years of age and at eight is represented by an average number of four or five different collections. The type and number of collections vary with locality, sex, and age of the pupils. Thus, in one investigation, eight hundred boys were found to be making an average of seven different collections; the average for the same number of girls was over eight (38). Ninety per cent of the nine-year-old pupils were making collections, as compared with sixty per cent of fifteen to sixteen-year-old students. The average number of collections decreased after age nine or ten; at sixteen, the average was only four. As in the case of other strong interests, children need guidance in order that this almost universal activity will be related profitably to endeavor in science and related fields. It is apparent that directed reading is essential to guide this interest to worth-while fruition.

Data obtained from studies of vocational preference show that as children mature they need guidance and help in making individually suitable choices of a vocation. In one study, made in 1938, aviation represented the most popular vocational preference of second grade boys (36). The popularity of aviation was maintained throughout the grades, although in the fifth grade it was outranked by medicine, and in the seventh grade by engineering. Many of the vocational preferences of older pupils seemed to be expressions of illusory hopes since the "glamour" occupations and the professions constituted far too large a proportion of the choices in terms of the opportunities offered in these areas.

In another recent study, large groups of Negro and white high school students filled out an inventory of interests and activities (35). A section of the inventory contained the following questions: Have you decided as yet what occupation you would like to enter when you complete your education? Definitely? Has anyone assisted you in deciding upon a vocation? Who? Do you expect to finish high school? Do you intend to go to college? Do you want to go to college?

In several ways the data corroborated the results of previous studies. Moreover, the data for the Negro and white groups were

similar in many respects. In the latter group, more than twenty-five per cent of the boys expressed a preference for engineering; this was closely followed by aviation (twenty-one per cent). Next in order were machinist (eleven per cent), forestry (seven and seven tenths per cent), and office work (seven and one tenth per cent). Medicine was designated by four and seven tenths of the boys. (See Table II.) Three occupations — stenography and office work, teaching, and nursing — accounted for most of the choices of the girls. Ninety-three per cent of the girls listed one of these three as a preferred vocation. The girls were interested also in journalism, modeling,

TABLE II
OCCUPATIONAL CHOICES OF BOYS (Witty, Garfield, and Brink, 35, p. 127)

<i>Occupations</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Engineering	25.4
Aviation	21.2
Mechanic — machinist	11.0
Forestry	7.7
Office work — bookkeeping	7.1
Accounting	6.2
Agriculture	5.9
Law	5.9
Printing	5.6
Architect	5.0
Medicine — surgery	4.7
Journalism	4.7
Salesman	4.7
Draftsman	4.4
Chemist	4.4
Carpentry — woodwork — cabinet making	4.4
Teaching	4.4
Photography	4.1
Business	2.6
Art — commercial art	2.4
Navy — naval officer	2.0
Musician	2.0
Electrician	1.7
Postal work	1.1
Civil — government service	1.1
Pharmacy	.5

aviation (air stewardess), designing, and art. A few girls professed a desire to become beauticians. Table III presents data showing the vocational choices of the girls.

TABLE III

OCCUPATIONAL CHOICES OF GIRLS (Witty, Garfield, and Brink, 35, p. 129)

<i>Occupations</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Office and clerical work	50.0
Nursing	22.6
Teaching	20.4
Designing	14.4
Beautician	11.7
Journalism	10.9
Art — commercial art	9.8
Musician	9.2
Modeling	8.1
Aviation — air stewardess	7.3
Librarian	6.8
Drama — acting	6.0
Sales clerk — clerk	5.4
Interior decorating	4.9
Medicine and surgery	3.8
Buyer	2.4
Social worker	1.9
Dancer	1.9
Business woman	1.3
Dressmaking — sewing	1.0
Music teacher	.5

Less than one half of the entire group had received assistance in making their choices. Both boys and girls indicated that the greatest amount of help had been obtained from their parents. Assistance from the school in choosing a vocation was reported by very few students. However, forty-four per cent of the group stated that they expected to attend college. Undoubtedly the school and home had offered counsel bearing on this decision.

It seems apparent that the vocational ambitions of students in our secondary schools, and particularly of boys, are to a considerable extent the expression of vain hopes. This situation is not confined to any grade, nor is the propriety of choice in terms of abilities of

pupils and opportunities for employment greatly improved during the four years of the secondary school. For example, in the foregoing study the choices of twelfth grade pupils differed little from those of the ninth grade students. Moreover, it appears that occupational choices of boys are not much more realistically made today than they were a decade ago. At that time Lehman and Witty studied the relationship between the number of employed workers and the number of aspirants in twenty-four occupations (21). Most of the boys aspired to enter occupations in which relatively few adults were employed. These studies reveal a great need for guidance in order that vocational choices may be more realistically made. In helping children to select occupations more effectively, reading materials should play a significant role.

INTERESTS IN RADIO PROGRAMS

In several studies, it has been found that the average child spends two hours or more each day listening to the radio (17). The amount of time varies according to the type of community; in some localities children ordinarily exceed this amount, while in others the time allotted is somewhat less. However, ninety per cent of American homes have one or more radios, and listening to the radio is a national pastime. The radio satisfies with almost no effort on the child's part his desire for highly exciting, imaginative experience. The appeal of programs which abound in excitement and adventure develops early and continues throughout the middle grades and high school. (31)

Jersild has reported three successive surveys (during a single year) of children's professed interest in radio programs. He states:

Among programs that decline in popularity as children grow older are dramatizations of fairy tales and other programs of a frankly make-believe sort, programs involving chitchat and brief stories and songs, and programs dealing with the antics of everyday children (as distinguished from melodramatic juvenile adventures). Certain adult comedians who supply a relatively broad type of humor, supplemented by "funny" noises or slapstick, have a strong appeal at all age levels (partly, perhaps, because many adults select such programs, and children thus get a taste), while comedians whose humor is of a more subtle variety are likely

to rank relatively lower at the early age levels and then gain in popularity with advancing age. . . . Dance music and romantic serials gain an increasing audience in the teens, and there is a rising trend with age in the popularity of sports broadcasts, quiz programs, general news broadcasts, programs dealing with hobbies, historical dramas and other "quality" dramas. A program that deals realistically with the activities and foibles of genuine children is likely to appeal more to younger children and to adults than to children in the intermediate range. (17, pp. 500-501)

Interest in radio programs continues throughout the secondary school. A recently made study (1942) in a high school located in a suburb of Chicago revealed patterns similar to those reported in investigations of younger pupils. The amount of time spent daily in listening to the radio was about two hours (31). Boys and girls were attracted by the same programs at every grade level. Table IV sets forth the most favored programs and shows their rank as preferences of boys and girls.

ATTENDANCE AT MOVIES

Boys and girls go to the movies frequently and sometimes rate this activity above the radio in their leisure preferences. Although the average attendance is about once or twice each week, there are some boys and girls who attend the movies three or four times a week. Children like the same elements in the movie that attract them over the radio — action, adventure, and excitement.

Studies of the preferred movies show that elementary school children "like" the current offerings regardless of their seeming suitability or maturity as revealed by topic or subject matter. Some presentations, of course, have a stronger appeal than others. As has been frequently shown, boys and girls like nearly all Disney productions. Films about cowboys and pilots also interest them greatly. Less favored are pictures of current events, biographical and travel films, news shorts, and commentaries on various timely topics. Jersild states:

Children's movie interests roughly parallel their reading and radio interests, . . . although there are exceptions. For example, "comedy" seems to figure more in movie than in reading interests (unless comic strips are so classed). Reports of movie interests at any given time must be taken with a good deal of reservation,

just as is the case with radio programs, for the choices depend to a large degree upon what happens to have been available recently and upon the tastes that have been cultivated by the kind of fare offered in the past. (17, p. 506)

In the high school, boys and girls continue to attend the movies once or twice each week and, as in the elementary school, appear to "like best" the current movie that is being shown locally. Moreover, there is little change in the popularity of different types of movies

TABLE IV
RANKING GIVEN BY HIGH SCHOOL GIRLS AND BOYS TO THE
TWENTY-FIVE RADIO PROGRAMS GIVEN HIGHEST RANKING
BY BOTH SEXES (Witty and Coomer, 31, p. 74)

<i>Name of Radio Program</i>	<i>Rank</i>		
	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Both Sexes</i>
Bob Hope	1.0	1.0	1.0
Red Skelton	2.0	2.0	2.0
Fibber McGee	4.0	3.0	3.0
Lux Radio Theater	3.0	9.0	4.0
Kay Kyser	6.0	4.0	5.0
Henry Aldrich	5.0	6.0	6.0
Jack Benny	9.0	5.0	7.0
I Love a Mystery	13.0	7.0	8.0
Hit Parade	8.0	17.0	9.0
Glenn Miller	14.0	8.0	10.0
Information Please	7.0	23.5	11.0
Mr. District Attorney	11.5	11.5	12.0
Hermit's Cave	11.5	15.0	13.0
Ball games	20.5	10.0	14.0
One Man's Family	10.0	23.5	15.0
Charlie McCarthy	20.5	13.5	16.5
Spotlight Bands	17.0	16.0	16.5
Take It or Leave It	15.5	18.0	18.0
Quiz Kids	15.5	25.0	19.0
Blondie	18.5	19.5	20.5
News	18.5	11.5	20.5
Fred Allen	24.5	13.5	22.0
They Live Forever	22.0	19.5	23.0
Three Sheets to the Wind	23.0	21.5	24.0
New York Philharmonic	24.5	21.5	25.0

from grade to grade. Nor are there pronounced sex differences in "favorite movies." Table V shows the choices of one group of high school boys and girls who responded to a questionnaire and interview in 1942. (31)

ELEMENTS THAT ATTRACT BOYS AND GIRLS TO BOOKS

The first evidence of reading interests appears when children seek stories to be read or told to them. Boys and girls about five or six

TABLE V

RANKING GIVEN BY HIGH SCHOOL GIRLS AND BOYS TO THE
TWENTY-FIVE MOTION PICTURES GIVEN HIGHEST RANKING
BY BOTH SEXES, 1942 (Witty and Coomer, 31, p. 72)

<i>Name of Motion Picture</i>	<i>Rank</i>		
	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Both Sexes</i>
Corsican Brothers	2.0	1.0	1.0
Hellzapoppin	4.0	2.0	2.0
Son of Fury	3.0	3.0	3.0
Remember the Day	1.0	15.5	4.5
Sullivan's Travels	5.0	6.5	4.5
International Squadron	7.5	5.0	6.0
They Died with Their Boots On	12.0	4.0	7.0
To Be or Not To Be	6.0	8.5	8.0
Sergeant York	19.0	6.5	9.0
One Foot in Heaven	7.5	10.5	10.0
How Green Was My Valley	10.5	10.5	11.0
Bahama Passage	9.0	15.5	12.0
All Through the Night	15.5	8.5	13.0
H. M. Pulham, Esq.	10.5	18.0	14.0
Dumbo	15.5	23.5	15.0
The Jungle Book	15.5	13.5	16.5
A Yank in the R A F.	25.0	12.0	16.5
Citizen Kane	40.0	23.5	19.5
Babes on Broadway	18.0	18.0	19.5
Louisiana Purchase	21.5	29.0	19.5
Playmates	15.5	47.0	19.5
Blossoms in the Dust	13.0	20.5	22.5
Blondie pictures	21.5	29.5	22.5
Blues in the Night	21.5	13.5	24.5
Sundown	51.0		24.5

years of age prefer profusely illustrated stories about familiar happenings, animals, and nature. And they find keen enjoyment in jingles and poems. Their interests are already well defined and varied when they start to school; hence, the first grade teacher should provide diversified materials on many topics.

One of the first reports of reading interests emphasized the primary school child's liking for surprise and plot as elements in stories (13). It was found that animal tales appealed strongly to boys; accounts dealing with other children and with familiar places had a greater appeal for girls. There was no evidence of an especially strong interest in stories of "pure fancy" or in legends and folk tales.

One investigator listed the following elements in accounting for the appeal of stories to pupils in the middle grades: adventure, action, excitement, thrill, mystery, realism, child life, humor, animal life and nature, sportsmanship and bravery, sports, and airplanes and other inventions (19). It has been found that, with advance in age, boys turn with increasing frequency to realistic narratives in which the element of adventure is pronounced. Girls continue to favor themes of home life, and show a decidedly greater inclination to read romantic stories.

Scientific interests are strongest during adolescence. However, this situation is traceable in part to the somewhat common practice of delaying the presentation of scientific materials until pupils reach the upper grades of the elementary school, or the junior high school. Several studies show that younger pupils also develop a marked interest in science when opportunities for appropriate investigation are offered. In one study, library cards were checked to ascertain the scientific books circulating among children; thirty-five favorites were selected and made available to groups, and an observer recorded the children's reactions and their remarks (26). Each child was interviewed concerning his preferences. The pupils displayed a stronger interest than is often attributed to them and a greater discrimination. They wanted accurate and valid information — detailed facts concerning mechanical or scientific phenomena. Protests were voiced by the boys and girls when a number of devices which adults often believe appeal to children were employed; in disfavor were the excessive use of personification, the introductory "appeal-

getting" essay in which the author eulogizes an inventor or a scientist, and the use of adult-child conversation to present facts. It is noteworthy that when children became interested in a topic and had a real need for scientific information, they employed successfully books of widely varied reading difficulty. Finally, there was a considerable discrepancy between the adult judgment of appropriate reading material for children and the pupils' own choices. There was, however, noticeable agreement between the titles of books which adults preferred for their own use and those which children wanted to read.

READING THE COMICS

It has been repeatedly shown that boys and girls in the elementary school read the comics extensively. In fact, among middle grade children, reading the comics is the preferred reading pursuit. This activity attains high rank in the lower grades and continues as a favored pastime throughout the high school.

In one study of the comics, the responses of random samplings from two thousand five hundred children in grades IV, V, and VI were analyzed. Interest in the comics was general and consistent from grade to grade. The average number of magazines read was about fifteen in each of the grades; four of these were read regularly, and four and one half, often. Comic strips also were generally read; twenty-six was the average number reported. Of these, about fifteen were read regularly, and five, often. In these grades, half of the pupils reported that they enjoyed making their own comics. (27)

The similarity in children's responses to the comics in the intermediate grades was an outstanding feature of this investigation. This was particularly noticeable in their preferences for comic magazines. Thus, *Batman* attained first rank in all grades, and *Superman* was second. Third and fourth ranks were assigned in various grades to *Famous Funnies*, *Magic*, *Ace*, *Flash*, and *Jungle*. Although the magazines *Jungle*, *Magic*, and *Famous Funnies* occupied somewhat different positions in the three grades, it was clear that the most popular comic magazines have strong appeal in all grades. The similarity in children's responses to the comics from grade to grade was noticeable in several other phases of this study. The average number of comic strips read regularly was the same in the fourth,

fifth, and sixth grades. Moreover, in each of these grades, first, second, and third ranks were given to the same strips: *Dick Tracy*, *Smilin' Jack*, and *Blondie*. And in grades V and VI, *Donald Duck* was assigned fourth place. Other generally popular strips throughout the middle grades were *The Captain and the Kids*, *Brenda Starr*, *Nancy*, *Mickey Mouse*, and *Terry and the Pirates*. (27)

In the seventh and eighth grades, pupils were attracted somewhat less frequently to the comic magazines, although some favorites of the middle grades were still read (40). However, interest in the comic strip appeared with the same intensity as in the lower grades. Thus, at the junior high school level, as in the middle grades, reading the comics was found to be a favored leisure pursuit of boys and girls — a general interest affected to a relatively small degree by differences in age, sex, or locality.

In the high school, a further decrease of interest in comic magazines was found. Nevertheless, it is fitting to point out that in a high school rich in opportunities and motivation for appreciation of literary materials, the comics held high rank among the favored reading materials. In fact, the comic magazines constituted about one fourth of the total number of magazines read.

The average number of comic strips read by these high school students was about eighteen; of these, more than nine were read regularly. Both boys and girls read about the same number of comic strips. The average remained relatively constant from grade IX through grade XII. (See Table VI.) These data disclose a continued preoccupation with the comics throughout the secondary school. Certainly this tendency presents a problem in some classes, and constitutes a challenge in every school.

Attempts to give intelligent direction to children's interest in the comics are necessary, since excessive reading in this area may lead to a decline in artistic appreciation and to a taste for shoddy, distorted presentations. This eventuality would be unfortunate indeed in view of the reading habits and tastes of many boys and girls today. Survey after survey has disclosed that children in the middle grades frequently develop reading tastes which are far from commendable.

The problem in excessive reading of the comics is not to be met by exacting conformity or by setting up restrictions or prohibitions.

TABLE VI
FAVORITE COMIC STRIPS BY GRADES
(Witty and Coomer, 34, p. 351)

GRADE IX		GRADE X		GRADE XI		GRADE XII	
<i>Comic Strip</i>	<i>Rank</i>	<i>Comic Strip</i>	<i>Rank</i>	<i>Comic Strip</i>	<i>Rank</i>	<i>Comic Strip</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Brenda Starr	1.0	Smilin' Jack	1.0	Smilin' Jack	1.0	Terry and the	
Dick Tracy	2.5	Terry and the		Dick Tracy	2.0	Pirates	1.0
Li'l Abner	2.5	Pirates	2.0	Terry and the		Smilin' Jack	2.0
Gasoline Alley	4.5	Dick Tracy	3.0	Pirates	3.0	Gasoline Alley	3.0
Terry and the		Brenda Starr	4.0	Brenda Starr	4.0	Dick Tracy	4.0
Pirates	4.5	Li'l Abner	5.0	Tiny Tim	5.0	Smitty	5.0
Smilin' Jack	6.0	Gasoline Alley	6.5	Gasoline Alley	6.0	Winnie Winkle	6.0
Smitty	7.0	Winnie Winkle	6.5	Smitty	7.0	Li'l Abner	7.0
Winnie Winkle	8.0	Smitty	8.0	Li'l Abner	8.0	Brenda Starr	8.0
Tiny Tim	9.0	Tiny Tim	9.0	Winnie Winkle	9.0	Tiny Tim	9.0
Henry	10.0	Blondie	11.0	Henry	10.0	Blondie	10.0
Donald Duck	11.0	Donald Duck	11.0	Blondie	11.5	Donald Duck	11.0
Mickey Mouse	12.0	Toots and		Donald Duck	11.5	Flash Gordon	12.5
The Captain		Casper	11.0	Scarlet		Henry	12.5
and the Kids	13.0	Henry	13.0	O'Neil	14.0	Popeye	14.0
Blondie	14.0	Mickey Mouse	14.5	Superman	14.0	Abbie an'	
Flash Gordon	15.0	Popeye	14.5	Flash Gordon	14.0	Slats	15.0

Reading the comics should be regarded as an activity which parallels the child's interest in the highly exciting, adventurous offerings of the radio and the motion picture. In meeting the problem presented by these three media, the teacher should first study each child's *total* pattern of interests in order to have an adequate understanding of his activities, preferences, and behavior. It may be found that a seemingly excessive interest in one field such as the comics is not interfering with a wholesome development along many other lines. For example, one fifth grade boy read more comics than any of his classmates. But his pattern of reading was varied and his choices of books were generally high in quality; his conduct and behavior at home and at school were superior; and he was a favorite with his peers. In his case, reading the comics was not viewed as a problem. However, there are other children who read little in addition to the comics and whose general pattern of interest shows not only

an addiction to exciting, adventurous experiences presented vicariously, but also a neglect of reading materials suitable for extending worthy interests and for cultivating tastes. A thorough study of interests will help the teacher understand the unique nature and needs of each child. This effort constitutes the first step in a program designed to meet the problems presented by excessive reading of the comics.

The second step involves an attempt to offer pupils a variety of good literary sources which are rich in the elements of action, surprise, adventure, and excitement. There are many books for boys and girls which can be used advantageously in this effort. Some of these books are reasonable in price, and all of them will be found in well equipped school or community libraries. And the parent who cooperates will strive to see that the home offers further opportunities for reading that are individually appropriate and beneficial. The intensity and universality of interest in the comics afford a unique opportunity to offer discriminating guidance. Through the cooperative efforts of parents and teachers, boys and girls may be introduced to a variety of satisfying reading experiences from factual, imaginative, and exciting sources. This will be the first important forward move on the road to better reading and improved tastes.

READING NEWSPAPERS, BOOKS, AND MAGAZINES

The newspaper attracts young children and continues to hold their interest as they grow older. The comic strip is the favorite section of the newspaper; its popularity is never equaled by any other part. One investigator assigned ranks to different sections of the paper (19). Table VII presents these ranks. Noteworthy is the high rank of the comics as compared with the relatively low ranks of editorials and political accounts.

Periodicals have recently come to appeal strongly to pupils in the elementary school as well as in the high school. In a study by Witty and Kopel, periodicals proved to be popular in every grade above the second in the elementary school (36). Both girls and boys gave first rank to *Child Life* in grades I to IV. *Popular Mechanics* advanced to first place in the boys' preferences in grade V, but in grades VI, VII, and VIII it was replaced as the most popular maga-

TABLE VII

SECTIONS OF NEWSPAPER LIKED RANKED ACCORDING TO FREQUENCY OF MENTION (Lazar, 19, p. 65)

Boys N = 990				Girls N = 955			
Rank	Section	Number	Per Cent	Section	Number	Per Cent	
1	Comics	793	80.1	Comics	852	89.2	
2	Sport	223	22.5	News	73	7.6	
3	News	68	6.8	Crossword puzzles	53	5.5	
4	Crimes	36	3.6	Stories	40	4.2	
5	Stories	26	2.6	Crimes	23	2.4	
6	Crossword puzzles	25	2.5	Sport	23	2.4	
7	Front page	21	2.1	Editorial	16	1.7	
8	All	14	1.4	Theater and screen	11	1.2	
9	Editorial	14	1.4	All	10	1.0	
10	Rotogravure	11	1.1	Front page	8	0.8	
11	Magazine	3	0.3	Society	8	0.8	
12	Political	3	0.3	Rotogravure	8	0.8	

zine by *Boys' Life*. Another study yielded similar results. Table VIII shows the order of professed interest among elementary school pupils in different types of magazines as reported by Lazar in 1937 (19). Today, boys and girls show a keen interest in periodicals such as *My Weekly Reader*, *Current Events*, *Jack and Jill*, *Story Parade*, *Children's Activities*, and *Jr.*

In a more recent investigation by Witty and Coomer (1942) (31), a group of high school boys and girls reported on the magazines, newspapers, and books they were reading. About four magazines (other than comics) were read regularly; and three, often. This average is somewhat higher than that reported in an earlier study by Brink, who states: "It is apparent from these investigations that high school pupils read from two to three magazines regularly." (6, p. 42)

The names of the popular magazines were assembled in the 1942 study. The *Reader's Digest*, *Life*, and the *Saturday Evening Post* had the most general appeal. There was little difference in the types of magazines preferred from grade to grade; nor was there a tendency for the juniors and seniors to turn more often than freshmen to the sophisticated types of magazines.

TABLE VIII

CHOICES OF MAGAZINES RANKED ACCORDING TO FREQUENCY OF MENTION

(Lazar, 19, p. 60)

<i>Boys</i> N = 1038				<i>Girls</i> N = 989			
<i>Rank</i>	<i>Type</i>	<i>Number Per Cent</i>		<i>Type</i>	<i>Number Per Cent</i>		
1	Detective and mystery	303	29.2	General story	198	20.0	
2	Science and mechanics	241	23.2	Movie and theater	185	18.7	
3	Children's	124	11.9	Children's	155	15.7	
4	Adventure	117	11.3	Detective and mystery	113	11.4	
5	General story	97	9.3	Household	90	9.1	
6	Aviation	77	7.4	Serious — popular	88	8.9	
7	Serious — popular	61	5.9	Science and mechanics	80	8.1	
8	Comics	39	3.8	Literary	53	5.4	
9	Sports	33	3.2	Comics	30	3.0	
10	Movie and theater	31	3.0	Adventure	16	1.6	
11	Literary	26	2.5	Lodge	13	1.3	
12	Household	19	1.8	Religion	6	0.6	
13	Religion	5	0.5	Sports	5	0.5	
14	Lodge	4	0.4	Musical	4	0.4	
15	Health	2	0.2	Health	3	0.3	
16	Musical	—	—	Aviation	—	—	

The students were asked to give the titles of books they had read recently. The average number reported to have been read was about four; the eleventh grade pupils cited a relatively small number of books while the twelfth grade boys read a large number.

In Table IX it may be seen that the books were on the whole rather superior in quality; this list contains a generous assortment of good modern books. When comparisons were made from grade to grade, only slight differences appeared. The differences were not so marked as one might anticipate; thus a number of popular modern novels appeared in all grades. These pupils seemed to read a somewhat more varied and mature assortment of books than did the group studied by Brink a few years earlier. At that time he concluded: "With the exception of a few classics, which were undoubtedly prescribed reading, the list of books most frequently read by seniors is made up largely of the best sellers of the year." (7, p. 618)

TABLE IX

RANKING GIVEN BY GIRLS AND BOYS TO THE BOOKS
 READ MOST FREQUENTLY BY BOTH SEXES, 1942
 (Adapted from Witty and Coomer, 31, p. 69)

<i>Name of Book</i>	<i>Rank</i>		
	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Both Sexes</i>
Berlin Diary	10	20	1.0
Out of the Night	3.0	1.0	20
The Red Badge of Courage	2.0	50	3.0
Galsworthy's Representative Plays	50	11.0	50
Green Mansions	40	150	5.0
Mein Kampf	85	40	5.0
Sergeant York	22.0	3.0	70
A Tale of Two Cities	60	17.5	8.0
The Call of the Wild	16.5	6.5	10.5
Inside Europe	16.5	6.5	10.5
Hamlet	105	110	10.5
This Above All	12.5	8.0	10.5
The Nigger of the Narcissus	7.0	220	13.0
Saratoga Trunk	12.5	15.0	14.5
Rebecca	8.5	22.0	14.5
The Keys of the Kingdom	10.5	22.0	16.0
Life with Father	20.5	150	17.0
Baree, Son of Kazan	23.5	11.0	21.5
Boys' Life of Mark Twain	20.5	17.5	21.5
The Count of Monte Cristo	16.5	22.0	21.5
Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde	16.5	22.0	21.5
Education for Death	16.5	22.0	21.5
For Whom the Bell Tolls	23.5	110	21.5
You Can't Do Business with Hitler	25.0	110	21.5
Boy on Horseback	16.5	220	21.5

RELATIONSHIP OF INTELLIGENCE TO READING INTERESTS

Several studies have dealt with the relationship of intelligence (I.Q. or M.A.) to the reading habits and interests of boys and girls. Some comprehensive investigations have been made with gifted children as subjects. The author's studies have shown that the amount of time devoted by the gifted child to reading increases with age, and the quality of his choices is superior. As in the case

of mentally average children, the girls read more than the boys. Gifted children, again with striking similarity to mentally average children, show relatively little interest in books concerned with music, the drama, and fine arts in general. However, the peak for reading interests among the gifted is much later than age thirteen — the age repeatedly reported as the time when a decline in the amount of reading takes place. In the curve showing the amount of reading of gifted children, a steady increase occurred up to age seventeen.

Mentally dull children differ but slightly from mentally average and superior children in the types of reading matter they select. However, they read less and show a slightly greater inclination to turn to mystery and adventure stories than do the other groups. Tables X and XI show the types of books preferred by average, dull, and bright pupils of ages ten, eleven, and twelve. Lazar's study,

TABLE X
FIVE KINDS OF BOOKS LIKED BEST BY BOYS
(Lazar, 19, p. 56)

<i>Per Cent Bright</i>		<i>Per Cent Average</i>		<i>Per Cent Dull</i>	
Adventure	33.0	Mystery	23.4	Mystery	30.8
Mystery	19.7	Adventure	22.1	Detective	29.2
Detective	14.2	Detective	18.1	Adventure	9.8
Science	10.4	History	13.6	History	7.9
History	7.0	Invention	8.2	Nature and animal	7.9

TABLE XI
FIVE KINDS OF BOOKS LIKED BEST BY GIRLS
(Lazar, 19, p. 56)

<i>Per Cent Bright</i>		<i>Per Cent Average</i>		<i>Per Cent Dull</i>	
Mystery	27.1	Mystery	32.3	Fairy tales	38.3
Adventure	21.0	Fairy tales	21.1	Mystery	21.8
Fairy tales	14.4	Adventure	14.1	Detective	8.6
Novels	9.6	Home and school	7.0	Adventure	7.6
Home and school	9.3	History	6.2	Home and school	6.6

on which these tables were based, was reported in 1937. Recent studies by the author show similar trends.

The foregoing discussion should not lead one to place too much emphasis upon the I.Q. nor to overestimate the stability of this measure. It was held at one time that the intelligence quotient was relatively immutable and unchangeable. However, in recent years we have observed marked increases in I.Q. for a considerable number of children who have been provided with favorable conditions for learning. Studies have revealed also that the I.Q. may decrease when deprivations are great. Moreover, considerable variability is shown in the mental growth of individuals. Thus one investigator found that a group of children, studied and tested repeatedly over a nine year interval, showed the following changes: one fourth of the children varied ten points or more in I.Q. on retests made one year after the initial test. When the interval between testing was three years, an equal number changed seventeen or more I.Q. points (4). It appears that twenty-five per cent of the group, or one child in four, may vary as much as seventeen points or more in I.Q., an alteration in I.Q. that mental testers at one time believed to occur only about once in one thousand cases. Despite these variations, the mental test does yield a useful indicator of the status the child has attained in one phase of development. Therefore, test results should be considered as one item among many in planning a program best adapted to the needs of each child.

RELATIONSHIP OF MATURATION TO READING INTERESTS

The significance of maturation in connection with reading instruction is widely appreciated today. For example, it is recognized that efforts to force children to read before they have achieved readiness results simply in bringing about confusion and discouragement. Moreover, it leads in some instances to serious consequences, such as distaste for reading and emotional blockings that interfere noticeably with success in reading at later periods. It appears that lifelong impairment in reading is sometimes traceable to injudicious and unwarranted pressures exerted during the child's first year in school. We are now aware that readiness should be a serious concern when instruction in reading is initiated; but we are also aware that this concern should not be limited to first reading activities, for the

readiness of a particular child for reading *at every level* depends upon his ability, his past experience, his purpose, and his attitude. In a developmental program, each of these items is considered carefully by the classroom teacher who strives to foster continuous growth through reading. Particular attention is directed to the appraisal and judicious use of children's interests.

AN ILLUSTRATION OF THE DEVELOPMENTAL APPROACH

The following account describes the endeavor of one first grade teacher.* After a preliminary check on the physical development and home background of each child, this teacher spent the first few days of the school year making a survey of the interests and activities of the thirty children in her class. (See Table XII.) These interests were used as a basis for class discussion, for planning group projects, and for suggesting related reading. For example, discussion of their favorite comic characters caused the members of the class to want to "read" and examine the Disney books and simple stories in which the elements of adventure and surprise figured prominently. Having noted the type of radio programs the children designated as favorites, the teacher introduced the class to the phonograph recordings of *Peter and the Wolf*, *The Story of Little Black Sambo*, *The 500 Hats of Bartholomew Cubbins*, and *One String Fiddle*. Later in the year, when attendance at carnivals and circuses was at the head of the list of favorite activities, she provided books such as *Big Top*, *Come Meet the Clowns!* and *Three Circus Days*.

This teacher recognized the significance of direct firsthand experience and provided a wide range of activities which culminated in the extension of some interests and in the creation of new patterns. The basic vocabulary was derived from a study of objects in the classroom, examination of familiar play equipment and materials, care of pets, the garden, and related activities. These activities were used also as the basis for varied forms of language expression. The steps in this readiness program will be described in Chapter III. It is our purpose here to illustrate how some interests and needs were recognized and associated with experience in reading.

The information derived from the investigation of interests proved

* For a more complete account, see the article by Witty and Coomer. (33)

TABLE XII
INTERESTS OF A FIRST GRADE CLASS
(Witty and Coomer, 33, p. 244)

<i>Story Favorites</i>	<i>Rank</i>	<i>Favorite Radio Programs</i>	<i>Rank</i>	<i>Favorite Comic Strips</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Mickey Mouse	1.0	Superman	1 0	Captain and the Kids	1.5
Three Bears	2 0	Tom Mix	2 0	Blondie	1 5
Little Red Riding Hood	3 0	Little Orphan Annie	4 0	Lone Ranger	3.0
Little Black Sambo	4.5	Captain Midnight	4 0	Joe Palooka	5.0
Donald Duck	4.5	Terry and the Pirates	4 0	Smilin' Jack	5.0
Peter Rabbit	6.0	Jack Armstrong	6.5	Bringing Up Father	5.0
Three Little Pigs	7.0	Lone Ranger	6.5	Mickey Mouse	7.0
Crybaby Calf	8.5	Jack Benny	8.0	Li'l Abner	8.5
Ask Mr. Bear	8.5	Bob Hope	9.5	Donald Duck	8.5
Five Chinese Brothers	10.0	Chick Carter	9 5	Snappy	10.0

<i>Movie Favorites</i>	<i>Rank</i>	<i>Favorite Comic Magazines</i>	<i>Rank</i>	<i>Favorite Activities</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Mickey Mouse	1 0	Donald Duck	1 0	Going to carnivals	
Donald Duck	2 0	Batman	2 0	and circuses	1 5
Bambi	3.5	Captain and the Kids	3 0	Guessing a person's	
Screwy Squirrel	3.5	Captain Midnight	5.0	voice	1.5
Bugs Bunny	5.0	Captain Marvel	5.0	Riding bikes	3.0
Pluto	6.0	Looney Tunes	5.0	Playing baseball	6.5
Gene Autry	7 0	Superman	7.5	Building blocks	6.5
Snow White	8.0	Lone Ranger	7.5	Wood tag	6.5
Three Caballeros	10 0	Green Llama	9.5	Stoop tag	6.5
Cowboy pictures	10.0	Mickey Mouse	9.5	Plain tag	6.5
Army pictures	10.0			Checkers	6.5
				Helping around the house	10.0

of inestimable value not only in the readiness program but also in providing guidance throughout the school year (33). For example, during individual interviews the children were asked to state three wishes. Many responses fell into the categories of requests for toys or animal pets and were considered to be simply normal, wholesome reactions. However, in several instances some highly significant individual reactions were obtained. A timid little girl living with foster

parents expressed the wish that "my mother will always love me." Thus the teacher became aware of the child's feeling of insecurity. Later conferences with the parents revealed that the child knew that she was an adopted daughter and was eager to have assurance of lasting affection. A boy from a poor home wished that his parents could "support a dog." He confided that his parents had not permitted him to keep a stray mongrel he had befriended, and had turned it over to a humane society. This child grieved over the fate of his pet for a long time. A husky, red-haired lad, who frequently quarreled and fought with his classmates, expressed a desire to "have more kids to play with." Observation revealed that this boy was an extremely sensitive child who was humiliated over the fact that his father was ill most of the time and that his mother had to take the father's place as a wage earner. Another boy, always in trouble, wished that he were Superman in order that he "could get even with the big patrol boys" who, he said, "were always so mean" to him. Investigation disclosed that this child was suffering from a serious glandular disorder and related emotional disturbances. The parents were persuaded to place the boy under medical care and to cooperate in a program adjusted to the boy's limitations and needs.

"I wish my father would get well" was the expression of a boy who could not have playmates in his home because of an invalid, querulous father. "I wish my real father was back at home" voiced the anxiety and insecurity of another boy in a broken home. These simple responses, sympathetically and intelligently interpreted, helped this teacher to gain an understanding of her pupils and to provide the kind of school atmosphere in which happiness, successful achievement, and steady growth were possible for every child.

One value of the investigation just described was the revelation it afforded the teacher that her charges were somewhat insecure human beings much like herself and the adult world at large. The study also demonstrated to her that these children were responsive to many forces outside the schoolroom, forces that she would have to recognize if she were to become an effective guide.

Not only were the responses of the children to the various parts of the interest inventory helpful in giving the teacher an appreciation of personal problems or anxieties, but they also proved to be of

value to her in directing and enriching the children's reading (33). The teacher noted that a dominant interest was displayed in animals and in animal stories; she also observed that her pupils followed avidly the fortunes of Mickey Mouse and Donald Duck in books, movies, comic magazines and strips. Accordingly, she prepared large illustrated wall charts describing various activities of Donald Duck and Mickey Mouse. She encouraged art work in which the children followed these themes. And since she had taken time to familiarize herself with other characters and incidents described by the boys and girls as their favorites, she found opportunities to satisfy these interests and direct them into educationally valuable channels. For example, she did not condemn "reading" the comics when this activity proved a strong interest; instead she was alert to discover new books that were as full of adventure and as colorful and humorous as some of the tabloids. From *Donald Duck* and *Mickey Mouse*, her pupils turned to *Make Way for Ducklings*, *Lullaby*, *Katy and the Big Snow*, *Little Toot*, and *The 500 Hats of Bartholomew Cubbins*. She was also ready to admit the justice of a child's remark: "Sure, *Little Toot* and *The 500 Hats* are swell books, but they cost a lot of money, and you can get a secondhand *Superman* at Herman's for two cents."

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

The foregoing discussion and examples make clear the fact that effective programs in reading are based upon children's needs as shown by a study of their physical and social maturation, previous experience, purposes, interests, and attitudes. The teacher must have an appreciation of these factors as they operate in each child, and she must make an effort to create a situation in which every child has appropriate opportunities to develop in reading according to his particular constitution.

We have referred repeatedly to the significance of the interest factor. For years capable teachers have utilized children's interests as strong motives for learning. Committees engaged in curriculum development or reconstruction have given full recognition to the interests of boys and girls at different ages.

Specialists in reading also recommend that teachers utilize existing interests as a starting point for instruction, but they are fully

aware that some interests are transitory and that others are unworthy of extension (36). Therefore, it is suggested that teachers aim to modify old patterns, create new interests, and raise the level of pupils' tastes. In fact, the interests of boys and girls on coming to school may be thought of as constituting the opportunity and obligation of teachers. The interests of pupils at the time they leave a class or school reveal the extent to which the teacher has accepted responsibility for directing pupil growth. Thus, in a balanced reading program the study of children's interests becomes a basic consideration.

It is recognized that learning to read increases the child's sense of power and opens the door to new satisfactions and new sources of knowledge. Throughout all stages of the learning process, the child's satisfaction in real achievement and steady progress is also a primary concern. This is the logical corollary to the foregoing emphasis on the interest factor. This approach guarantees the child the chance to follow worth-while interests in a program characterized by systematic guidance and continuous evaluation. In such a program, successful achievement and disciplined growth are assured.

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❧ CHAPTER III ❧

Readiness for Reading

THE concept of “readiness,” first used in reference to the earliest stage of primary reading instruction and later extended to include other subjects, has been broadened further to encompass all age or grade levels. This is a soundly conceived expansion of a significant educational principle. (39)

It is now recognized that learning to read is a process of growth; hence readiness cannot be sharply delimited as to time or grade. Since the first grade is the period when the child receives initial formal instruction, it is imperative to make sure that he has the preparation and background necessary for success whenever reading materials are presented. His attitude toward reading may be colored throughout his life by these first experiences. Modern first grade teachers, therefore, attempt to see that conditions are assured for successful reading from experience charts, pre-primers, primers, and first readers. Readiness for reading is regarded by them as a condition which applies not only to textbooks, but also to every kind of printed material presented throughout the first grade. Obviously, a concern for reading readiness should not terminate at the end of the first grade. Since the first grade, however, is the period when most children begin to read, the extent of the problem is then of greater magnitude than at any other time.

There are several steps in preparing the child to read the materials introduced during the first grade. The first step culminates in the reading of experience charts with ease and understanding; the second, in proficiency in reading pre-primers and primers; and the third, in competency in reading longer passages in first grade readers.

THE BASIS OF READING READINESS

It has been found that a number of conditions must be satisfied before success in reading simple passages or stories can reasonably be expected. In some studies the role of intelligence has been stressed; in others, emphasis has been given to the significance of maturation, motive, language development, or experience. Investigators no longer attribute readiness to a single item such as mental age. It is now generally conceded that readiness is a developmental condition depending upon the combined operation of a number of related factors.

HOME BACKGROUND

It is believed that reading instruction should build upon language patterns established in the home. At home, the child employs words which relate to his own efforts in obtaining food, in putting on clothing, in expressing pleasure or dissatisfaction, and in other natural activities. When he enters school he should continue to extend his vocabulary through direct experience; moreover, his vocabulary thus acquired should be used as the basis for his first reading activities. Increasingly, the value of rich and varied first-hand experience is being recognized in preparing the child to read.

Parents and teachers should exchange information concerning the interests, characteristics, and development of each child. The readiness of a young child for reading depends to a considerable degree on the smoothness of his transition from home life to school life and on the quality of home experiences he brings to new kinds of learning in school. Progress in the early stages of reading is directly affected by the opportunities for language expression offered the child both at home and at school.

Parents' visits to the classroom and their attendance at school meetings provide opportunities for parents and teacher to discuss home conditions which are conducive to learning. The teacher should be prepared to interpret modern reading methods and to give parents some insight into the varied approaches to reading readiness.

PHYSICAL STATUS AND GROWTH

In estimating the child's readiness for reading, consideration should be given to his vision, hearing, and general health. Defects

in vision cannot always be determined by such charts as the Snellen. Teachers who suspect the presence of serious visual defects should suggest to parents or others in authority the advisability of a thorough eye examination.

In learning to read, a child needs a high degree of auditory acuity to hear sounds correctly and to reproduce them accurately. He learns that certain printed symbols have meaning by relating them to spoken language. If his hearing is defective, he receives wrong impressions or merely hears confusing sounds. Close observation or the use of a simple whisper test will enable the teacher to make a crude evaluation of each child's hearing. Adjustment should be made in the classroom to care for minor difficulties, and serious cases should be referred to specialists.

Generally good health is necessary if the child is to gain most from instruction throughout the school day. The teacher should, therefore, study each child's physical condition and attempt to provide corrective measures and adjustments when they are needed.

MENTAL MATURITY

Success in learning to read will vary with factors such as: atmosphere of the classroom, skill of the teacher, size of the class, types of materials used, and intelligence of the pupils. Mental test ratings are valuable to indicate the variation in ability within a class and to provide a basis for adapting methods and materials so as to bring about effective learning (30). Mental age should be considered as only one element in the composite which determines readiness for reading. Too great a dependence upon the results of mental tests should be avoided. For example, a mental age of six years and six months has been referred to again and again as *the* criterion of readiness. Some authorities have, therefore, recommended that reading instruction be postponed until each child attains this mental level. Such a recommendation is unjustifiable. It has been demonstrated repeatedly that delaying reading instruction until the child's mental age is six years and six months will *not* insure successful reading (3, 5, 7). However, mental test ratings are useful, not as the sole basis for predicting reading accomplishment, but as an indication of status attained by the child in one type of development. Used in association with other data, they have value. Individual

intelligence tests are, of course, most reliable. Teachers who have worked with the author, however, have found group tests, such as the *Kuhlmann-Anderson Tests*, effective instruments for securing test ratings on children just entering or about to enter the first grade. Information concerning widely used mental tests may be found in Table XIII.

READINESS AS DETERMINED BY TESTS

Tests have been constructed on the assumption that it is possible to analyze the components of "reading readiness" (39). The *Gates Reading Readiness Test* is an example of these efforts. Five sub-tests are used. The first, *Picture Directions*, requires the child to listen to directions, to look at and interpret illustrations of farm and city life, and to follow directions. A second test, *Word Matching*, necessitates the identification of two like words in a series of four-word units. In the third test, *Word Card Matching*, words are displayed on cards and the child is asked to locate like words in a series of four different combinations. In the fourth test, *Rhyming*, the child is asked to examine pictures and to put a cross on the picture which a word "sounds like." Sub-test five, an individual test, requires the child to identify as many as he can of the capital and the small letters of the alphabet. He is asked also to read the numbers from zero to nine. The author of this test presents critical scores to assist the teacher in ascertaining the child's readiness for reading.

The authors of the *Metropolitan Readiness Tests* recommend the use of these tests either at the end of kindergarten or at the beginning of first grade. Ten to twenty pupils may be tested in groups. The administration of the test requires approximately seventy minutes broken into four periods. The sub-tests follow:

- Detecting similar pictures and symbols
- Copying geometrical figures, letters, and numbers
- Selecting a picture that illustrates the word named by the examiner
- Choosing a picture that depicts a sentence
- Recognizing numbers for groups of items cited by the examiner
- Identifying pictures of common objects described by the examiner

An optional test is also included. The child is asked to "make a picture of a man." His drawing is to be rated according to norms

TABLE XIII
INTELLIGENCE TESTS FOR KINDERGARTEN AND FIRST GRADE CHILDREN
Individual Tests

<i>Name</i>	<i>Publisher</i>	<i>Time</i>	<i>Types of Scores</i>	<i>No. of Forms</i>
Arthur Point Scale of Performance Tests (6 years and over)	C. H. Stoelting Co., Chicago, Ill.	35-40 min.	Point score, M.A., I.Q.	2
Minnesota Preschool Scale (18 mos.-6 yrs.)	Educational Test Bureau, Inc., Minneapolis, Minn.	Approx. 60 min.	Score: verbal; nonverbal; total. I Q Equivalent, S.D. Placement, Rank in 100	2
Revised Stanford-Binet Tests of Intelligence (2 years and over)	Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Mass.	40-90 min.	M.A., I.Q.	2

Group Tests

<i>Name</i>	<i>Publisher</i>	<i>Time</i>	<i>Types of Scores</i>	<i>No. of Forms</i>
California Tests of Mental Maturity (Kdg., Grade I)	California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, Calif.	Approx. 90 min.	Nonlanguage, M.A. and I.Q. Language, M A. and I.Q.	1
Dearborn First Grade Tests of Intelligence (6 yrs. and over)	Educational Test Bureau, Inc., Minneapolis, Minn.	Approx. 60 min.	Point score, M.A., I.Q.	1
Detroit First Grade Intelligence Test (5 yrs., 9 mos - 7 yrs., 10 mos)	World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.	Approx. 30 min.	Point score, M.A., I.Q.	1
Kuhlmann-Anderson Tests (Grade I-First Semester)	Educational Test Bureau, Inc., Minneapolis, Minn.	Approx. 60 min.	M.A., I.Q., median, mental growth units	1
Pintner-Cunningham Primary Test (Kdg., Grade I, Grade II)	World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hud- son, N.Y.	Approx. 45 min.	Point score, M.A., I.Q.	1

but the result is not to be included in his total score. In addition, the pupil is asked to write or print his name on the cover of the booklet. His success in this task is not scored but is considered to "indicate the stage the child has reached in perception and motor control."

Scores on the *Metropolitan Readiness Tests* may be converted into percentile rankings either for the total test or for the separate items. A total score of approximately 60 is recommended as a determining point for a tentative prediction of reading readiness. The authors caution the teacher, however, against considering the test score as the sole criterion of the child's readiness for reading.

The *Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test* is "designed to assist teachers in recognizing or identifying children who are ready to learn to read," and to help the teacher identify those children who are in need of different types of school programs. The authors also caution against using the results as the "sole measure or basis for decision" in selecting children for instruction in reading. The test may be administered to ten or fifteen pupils at one time. The *Lee-Clark Readiness Test* first appeared in 1931. The 1943 revision is "based upon the original edition and the research of the authors and others which has taken place in recent years." Test results are given in point scores which can be converted into percentile ratings and also into grade placement equivalents. In addition, expectation of success in reading is estimated by means of a table based on scores. The test has three parts:

- I. LETTER SYMBOLS. Test 1. Matching. Test 2. Cross out.
- II. CONCEPTS. Test 3. Vocabulary and following instructions.
- III. WORD SYMBOLS. Test 4. Identification of letters and words.

This popular test is much shorter than several other readiness tests. It has been widely used; but its reliability and validity, like those of other readiness tests, have not yet been fully established.

Table XIV lists representative readiness tests and gives data concerning each test. These tests have only limited value in a reading program that is rich and varied. The skillful teacher usually stresses the items which are found in most readiness tests through informal procedures in a well rounded first grade program (3, 39). Thus readiness is appraised continuously in the normal activities of the class-

room. But in some situations, it is impossible to make informal appraisals and teachers may wish to secure a fairly reliable estimate of the child's development in the areas included in readiness tests. In such situations, the results of readiness tests will prove of value.

VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

After a child has taken part in an interesting individual or group activity, the teacher records on an experience chart the child's own story (39). Teachers stress particularly the value of noting the stage when the child is able to identify and compare several words on the chart. The child's ability in identifying and comparing such words gives additional evidence of value in judging reading readiness.

Study of each child's vocabulary and expression as revealed in the way he tells a story will help the teacher to appraise readiness for reading. Samples of the vocabulary used by each child on the playground may also be recorded and evaluated. Such observations supplement and extend the more formal and limited measures of vocabulary secured through the use of standard reading readiness tests, and add to the teacher's ability to judge the child's readiness for reading.

SPEECH HABITS AND LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

The teacher should observe carefully the pronunciation and articulation of each child as he tells stories or recites jingles and poems. It is obvious that a teacher may learn much about the child's expression by the way he recites a jingle such as the following:

There once was a cat and three kittens
And all of the kittens had mittens.
They played with a mouse
Who hid in the house
In one of the kitten's red mittens.

Immature speech should be noted and corrected, if possible, before reading is begun. Lispings, baby talk, nervous rapid speech, and indistinct speech can be helped or corrected through a patient effort on the part of the teacher to encourage each child to speak clearly and distinctly. Children from homes where a foreign language is spoken will also improve their speech if they are given an opportunity to talk freely with other children and to participate in telling

TABLE
READING READINESS TESTS FOR

<i>Name of Test</i>	<i>Publisher</i>	<i>Group or Individual</i>	<i>Approximate Time</i>
American School Reading Readiness Test (1941)	Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill.	Group	30-40 min.
Betts Ready to Read Test (1934) (also 1938)	Keystone View Company, Meadville, Pa.	Individual	60 min.
Gates Reading Readiness Tests (1942 Rev.)	Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.	Group and individual	40 min for group tests and about two min. for individual tests
Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test (1943 Rev.)	California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, Calif.	Group	30-40 min.
Metropolitan Readiness Tests (1933)	World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.	Group	60-70 min., four sittings
Monroe Reading Aptitude Tests (1935)	Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Mass.	Part group and part individual	30-40 min. for group tests and 10-15 min. for individual tests
Van Wagenen Reading Readiness Test (1932)	Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minn.	Individual	45-50 min.

XIV

KINDERGARTEN AND BEGINNING FIRST GRADE

<i>Type of Score</i>	<i>Num- ber of Forms</i>	<i>Type of Tests</i>
Weighted scores and predicted reading grades	1	Vocabulary, discrimination of letter forms and letter combinations, discrimination of words by selection and matching, recognition of geometric forms, following directions, and memory of geometric forms
Point scores, percentiles, and prediction of reading success	1	Visual readiness, auditory readiness, visual sensation and perception, oculomotor and perception habits, eye and hand dominance
Percentile score and prediction of reading success	1	Picture directions, word matching, word card matching, rhyming, and reading letters and numbers
Percentile ranking and grade placement equivalents	1	Letter symbols: matching and crossing out; concepts: vocabulary and following instructions; word symbols: identification of letters and words
Point score and percentile ranking	1	Similarities, copying, vocabulary, sentences, numbers, and general information. Drawing of man is optional.
Point scores and percentile rank	1	Visual, auditory, motor, articulation, and language. Hand, eye, and foot preferences
Mid-C Score (translated into rating of superior, good, average, mediocre, or poor)	2	Range of information, perception of relations, vocabulary (opposites), memory span for ideas, word discrimination, word learning

stories, dramatizing, singing, and reading stories or poems they have written.

EMOTIONAL AND SOCIAL GROWTH

Readiness for reading depends also upon emotional development and social maturity, which are reflected in the child's activities as well as in his social relationships (39). The child who is prepared best for reading is able to work in harmony with other children. He should be able to express his own ideas clearly. He should have developed the ability to give and sustain attention as he listens to stories. And he should have learned to approach new learning situations with feelings of self-confidence and security. Contributions to the development of these abilities and attitudes are made by stable home environments and by good classroom atmospheres. The teacher should observe each child to ascertain the extent of his social and emotional development as reflected by the foregoing acquisitions.

INTERESTS, ATTITUDES, AND EXPERIENCES

In their efforts to obtain further evidence of the child's background of experience and his social and emotional adjustment, teachers may be appreciably aided by the use of interest inventories (39). In informal interviews, the teacher and pupil discuss topics such as preferred play activities at home and in school, interesting places to visit, favorite books and toys, and so forth. One inventory designed especially for use with primary grade children contains questions relating to the child's social relationships and experiences. (41, 43)

Some of the questions are concerned with matters of personal adjustment:

If you could have three wishes that might come true, what would be your first wish? second wish? third wish?
Are you afraid of many things? Name some of the things you fear.
Would you rather play by yourself or with other children?

Additional questions relate to activities:

Are you making any collections? Of what?
What things have you made?

There are inquiries about trips and visits:

Have you ever been to these places: a farm, a circus, a zoo, an amusement park? (etc.)

Questions about toys and pets are included:

What toys do you have at home? (A list may be read aloud by the teacher.)

Do you have a pet? What?

Inquiries pertain also to books and stories:

Do you have storybooks that you can read yourself?

Do you like to have someone read to you? Who?

How many books do you have of your own? Name some.

What other books would you like to own?

It may be seen at once that this approach is directed toward ascertaining the quality and extent of children's experience. Data secured from such study should be employed with other information in estimating each child's social and emotional status.

The use of an interest inventory may prove helpful in revealing the child's attitude toward reading and his desire to learn to read. Increasingly, students of the reading process are stressing the pupil's attitude as a factor of significance in successful reading (43). They are emphasizing also the role played by the attitude of parents and of other members of each child's family. They stress too the child's relationships with his peers and his success in making adjustments within his group (42). Data disclosing these types of development may be obtained through use of an interest inventory. They may be secured also by employing anecdotal methods and other techniques of child study.

PROMOTING THE DEVELOPMENT OF READING READINESS

In estimating readiness for reading, the first responsibility of the teacher is to make an appraisal of each child's status and needs (39). Deficiencies should be corrected and help should be given as needed by individuals or groups. Systematic reading instruction offered before such steps are taken may lead to irreparable harm. Parents, as well as first grade teachers, should give serious attention to the problem of readiness. The home and the school should work to-

gether to prepare the child for successful reading. This endeavor should include activities which will deepen and enrich experience, cultivate expression, stimulate vocabulary growth, and foster desirable attitudes.

RICH AND VARIED EXPERIENCE

Since the activities in which pupils engage vary in worth, teachers should study each child's background of experience (39, 41). In the case of one child, such study may reveal a barren or meager background, necessitating a somewhat general program of enriched experience. For another child, group experiences may be regarded as essential to establish the ability to live harmoniously with others; while in the case of a third child, a greater variety of activities may seem desirable to offset some consuming or narrowing interest.

Teachers find, of course, that every child and all groups need directed experience in order to have a common basis for reading. Visits to a broadcasting station, an airport, a market, a neighborhood grocery store, a farm, a dairy, or a florist often provide a background for free exchange of ideas. Cooperative experiences such as planning a garden, taking care of pets, building model airplanes, and selling various wares may be essential to the meaningful use of printed materials. These activities help the child to learn to live and work congenially within his group. Moreover, successful participation in group projects is usually associated with the development of emotional adequacy and poise, essential items in readiness for reading.

EXPERIENCE CHARTS

The experience chart is often made after a group has taken part in some activity such as a trip or excursion, a fire drill, or a tour of the neighborhood. The teacher leads a discussion about the experience and offers guidance to make sure that the expression is simple and accurate. She records the story as it is told, in manuscript writing or by use of a rubber-type printing press. The story may then be transferred to oak tag (twenty-four by thirty-six inches) and pictures may be added by the children. The following account (26, pp. 132-136) indicates the procedure of one teacher in developing such a chart.

Before the teacher called the reading group, the children had been at work on various activities. Some were working in the garden out of doors; others had been painting the playhouse. A group of girls was making new curtains for the house, and still another group was just playing in the house.

The teacher gathered a small group around her. After all were sitting comfortably, the following conversation developed:

TEACHER. Do you think we could tell a story about the interesting things we have done today?

CHILDREN. Yes.

TEACHER. What could our story be about?

CHILD. The family who lived in our playhouse today.

CHILD. Our home.

CHILD. Our garden.

TEACHER. Yes. All those would be interesting. Did anything happen today that has not happened before? Do you remember our surprise today?

CHILD. Oh, yes.

CHILD. The seeds are coming up.

CHILD. I saw seeds in our garden.

CHILD. Seeds.

CHILD. Seeds are growing in our garden.

TEACHER. Do you think we could tell an interesting story about what has happened in our garden?

(All the children agreed. Then followed a period of free discussion about the garden. . . .)

CHILD. We can call our story "Our Surprise."

CHILD. I know a story. We can say, "Our seeds are up."

TEACHER. Do you all think "Our Surprise" is a good name for our story?

(Teacher wrote on the board):

OUR SURPRISE

CHILD. We need to say, "We have a garden."

TEACHER. All right. How many think that is a good way to begin our story?

*(All agreed. Teacher wrote on the board under the title):
We have a garden.*

TEACHER. What else should we put in the story?

CHILD. We should tell where the garden is.

CHILD. We should tell how we made our garden.

CHILD. We should tell about watering.

TEACHER. Those are good suggestions. How would you like to tell where the garden is, Romero?

ROMERO. (*Shyly pointing*) It is out there.

TEACHER. Yes, it is. You tell us where our garden is, Ann.

ANN. Our garden is in our school yard.

TEACHER. Do you like Ann's sentence, Romero? Is that the way you meant to say it?

ROMERO. (*Nodded "yes"*)

(*Teacher wrote sentence under the first one.*)

TEACHER. Let us read the sentence. You look while I read it to you. (*The teacher ran her hand under [Ann's] sentence and read*):

We have a garden.

Our garden is

in our school yard.

CHILD. We left out seeds. We must say, "We planted seeds in our garden."

(*Some thought they should tell about digging and making rows. After discussion they agreed to say*):

We made five rows

in our garden.

CHILD. Now we can say, "We planted seeds."

TEACHER. Do you all agree? Do you think we should tell where we planted the seeds?

CHILD. In the garden.

CHILD. We planted seeds in the rows.

TEACHER. How many like John's sentence, "We planted seeds in the rows"?

CHILD. It is all the same. The rows are in the garden.

TEACHER. That is right. Now let us read our story again.

(*Teacher read, running her hand under each line from left to right under the sentences*):

OUR SURPRISE

We have a garden.

Our garden is

in our school yard.

We made five rows

in our garden.

We planted seeds

in the rows.

TEACHER. Now the surprise. Who wants to tell us about it?

CHILD. The seeds are up.

CHILD. Two little seeds are up.

TEACHER. Which sentence shall we use? They are just alike except that Sue has told us how many seeds are up.

CHILD. Let's use Sue's sentence.

(Teacher wrote):

Two little seeds are up.

TEACHER. Now who would like to show us where you will begin and how you will read the story? Slide your hand under the sentence as I did.

(Child followed directions, moving hand from left to right under each sentence.)

CHILD. I can read it.

TEACHER. Let us all read it softly together while I move my hand.

OUR SURPRISE

We have a garden.

Our garden is

in our school yard.

We made five rows

in our garden.

We planted seeds

in the rows.

Two little seeds are up.

FILMSTRIPS

Some teachers are using filmstrips to record some of the most pleasant and significant experiences of their pupils. For example, one teacher photographed the activities of her first grade group during the period in which the pupils participated in caring for an animal that was brought to school. The descriptive phrases and sentences of the children were placed in proper order under each picture. The showing of this filmstrip, which depicted the children's own experience, made it possible for them to master a stock of familiar words.* Similarly, other teachers are assembling pictures or actual photographs to reproduce worth-while firsthand experiences. These pictures furnish a basis for developing a meaningful

* The filmstrip featuring the care of a school pet was made by Miss Mildred Barlow of Milwaukee, Wisconsin. (See Chapter VI for a more detailed discussion of filmstrips.)

vocabulary. Children's own drawings are also used as a basis for composing stories. All these activities help to prepare the child for meaningful reading.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS AND RECORDINGS

The primary classroom that best serves children will contain abundant reading materials (40). Professional books such as Phyllis R. Fenner's *Our Library* (13), Annis Duff's *Bequest of Wings* (9), Anne Thaxter Eaton's *Reading with Children* (11) and *Treasure for the Taking* (12), Paul Hazard's *Books, Children & Men* (22), Laura E. Richards' *What Shall the Children Read?* (36), and Josette Frank's *What Books for Children?* (14) will help the teacher gain information about children's literature.

The following list contains titles of books that are reported as favorites by primary teachers who have worked with the author.

- ALLEN, MARIE L. *A Pocketful of Rhymes*. Harper, 1939.
 AUSTIN, MARGOT. *Peter Churchmouse*. Dutton, 1941.
 BANNERMAN, HELEN. *The Story of Little Black Sambo*. Lippincott, 1946.
 BARUCH, DOROTHY W. *Christmas Stocking*. William R. Scott, 1946.
 BEIM, LORRAINE L. and JERROLD. *Sasha and the Samovar*. Harcourt, 1944.
 ——. *Two Is a Team*. Harcourt, 1945.
 BEMELMANS, LUDWIG. *Hansi*. Viking, 1934.
 ——. *Madeline*. Simon & Schuster, 1939.
 BERNHARD, JOSEPHINE B. *Lullaby*. Roy Publishers, 1944.
 BESKOW, ELSA. *Pelle's New Suit*. Harper, 1929.
 BISHOP, CLAIRE H. *The Five Chinese Brothers*. Coward-McCann, 1938.
 BROOKE, L. LESLIE. *Johnny Crow's Garden*. Warne, 1904.
 ——. *Johnny Crow's New Garden*. Warne, 1935.
 BROWN, MARGARET W. *The Little Fisherman*. William R. Scott, 1945.
 BRUNHOFF, JEAN DE. *The Story of Babar, the Little Elephant*. Random, 1933.
 BUFF, MARY M. and CONRAD. *Dash and Dart*. Viking, 1942.
 BURTON, VIRGINIA L. *Katy and the Big Snow*. Houghton, 1943.
 ——. *The Little House*. Houghton, 1942.
 ——. *Mike Mulligan and His Steam Shovel*. Houghton, 1939.
 CHARLES, ROBERT H. *A Roundabout Turn*. Warne, 1930.
 DAUGHERTY, JAMES H. *Andy and the Lion*. Viking, 1938.
 D'AULAIRE, INGRI and EDGAR P. *Don't Count Your Chicks*. Doubleday, 1943.
 DE ANGELI, MARGUERITE L. *Yonie Wondernose*. Doubleday, 1944.
 DENNEY, DIANA. *The Little Red Engine Gets a Name*. Transatlantic Arts, 1945.

- DISNEY, WALT and BRUMBAUGH, FLORENCE. *Donald Duck and His Nephews*. Heath, 1940.
- DONALDSON, LOIS. *Karl's Wooden Horse*. Whitman, 1931.
- ETS, MARIE H. *In the Forest*. Viking, 1944.
- FALLS, C. B. *A B C Book*. Doubleday, 1923.
- FARJEON, ELEANOR. *A Prayer for Little Things*. Houghton, 1945.
- FIELD, RACHEL. *Prayer for a Child*. Macmillan, 1944.
- FISH, HELEN D. (Ed.). *Four and Twenty Blackbirds*. Lippincott, 1937.
- FLACK, MARJORIE. *Angus and the Cat*. Doubleday, 1931.
- . *Angus and the Ducks*. Doubleday, 1930.
- . *Angus Lost*. Doubleday, 1932.
- . *Ask Mr. Bear*. Macmillan, 1932.
- FLACK, MARJORIE and WIESE, KURT. *The Story about Ping*. Viking, 1933.
- GÁG, WANDA. *The A B C Bunny*. Coward-McCann, 1933.
- . *Gone Is Gone*. Coward-McCann, 1935.
- . *Millions of Cats*. Coward-McCann, 1928.
- . *Nothing at All*. Coward-McCann, 1941.
- GEISEL, THEODOR S. *And To Think That I Saw It on Mulberry Street*. Vanguard, 1937.
- GEISMER, BARBARA P. and SUTER, ANTOINETTE B. *Very Young Verses*. Houghton, 1945.
- GEMMIL, JANE B. *Joan Wanted a Kitty*. Winston, 1937.
- GRAMATKY, HARDIE. *Little Toot*. Putnam, 1939.
- . *Loopy*. Putnam, 1941.
- GREENAWAY, KATE. *A, Apple Pie*. Warne.
- HAMILTON, ELIZABETH. *P-Zoo*. Coward-McCann, 1945.
- HARRIS, LEONORE. *Big Lonely Dog*. Houghton, 1943.
- HENRY, MARGUERITE. *The Little Fellow*. Winston, 1945.
- HEYWARD, DU BOSE. *The Country Bunny and the Little Gold Shoes*. Houghton, 1939.
- HOKE, HELEN. *Grocery Kitty*. David McKay, 1946.
- HOWELL, VIRGINIA. *Who Likes the Dark?* Howell, Soskin, 1945.
- JACOBS, JOSEPH. *Johnny-Cake*. Putnam, 1933.
- LEAF, MUNRO. *The Story of Ferdinand*. Viking, 1936.
- LEFÈVRE, FÉLICITÉ, pseud. *The Cock, the Mouse, and the Little Red Hen: An Old Tale Retold*. Macrae Smith, 1907. (Reprinted 1945.)
- LENSKI, LOIS. *The Little Airplane*. Oxford, 1938.
- . *The Little Farm*. Oxford, 1942.
- . *The Little Train*. Oxford, 1940.
- LINDMAN, MAJ J. *Snipp, Snurr and the Red Shoes*. Whitman, 1932.
- LOFTING, HUGH. *The Story of Mrs. Tubbs*. Lippincott, 1923.
- MCCLOSKEY, ROBERT. *Make Way for Ducklings*. Viking, 1941.
- MACDONALD, GOLDEN, pseud. *The Little Island*. Doubleday, 1946.
- . *Little Lost Lamb*. Doubleday, 1945.
- . *Red Light, Green Light*. Doubleday, 1944.

- MCGINLEY, PHYLLIS. *The Horse Who Lived Upstairs*. Lippincott, 1944.
 MOTHER GOOSE. *Mother Goose: Seventy-seven Verses with Pictures* by Tasha Tudor. Oxford, 1944.
 ——. *The Tall Book of Mother Goose*. Illustrated by Feodor Rojankovsky. Harper, 1942.
 NEWBERRY, CLARE T. *April's Kittens*. Harper, 1940.
 ——. *Mittens*. Harper, 1936.
 PAYNE, EMMY. *Katy No-Pocket*. Houghton, 1944.
 PAYNE, JOSEPHINE B. *Once There Was Olga*. Putnam, 1944.
 PETERSHAM, MAUD and MISKA. *The Rooster Crows*. Macmillan, 1945.
 PIPER, WATTY. *The Little Engine That Could*. Platt, 1930.
 POTTER, BEATRIX. *The Tale of Peter Rabbit*. Warne, 1903.
 SEWELL, HELEN. *Blue Barns*. Macmillan, 1933.
 SLOBODKIN, LOUIS. *Clear the Track for Michael's Magic Train*. Macmillan, 1945.
 ——. *Magic Michael*. Macmillan, 1944.
 SMITH, E. BOYD. *Chicken World*. Putnam, 1910.
 TRESSLETT, ALVIN R. *Rain Drop Splash*. Lothrop, Lee, 1946.
 WHEELER, OPAL. *Sing Mother Goose*. Dutton, 1945.

Teachers should become acquainted also with collections of stories to be told to children. Among useful collections are:

- Association for Childhood Education, Literature Committee. *Told Under the Blue Umbrella*. Macmillan, 1933.
 ——. *Told Under the Green Umbrella*. Macmillan, 1930.
 BACMEISTER, RHODA. *Stories To Begin On*. Dutton, 1940.
 BECKER, CHARLOTTE et al. *Stories for Fun*. Scribner, 1941.
 BRITCHER, PHYLLIS. *Romney Gay's Book of Nursery Tales*. Grosset, 1942.
 MITCHELL, LUCY S. (Ed.). *Another Here and Now Story Book*. Dutton, 1937.
 MITCHELL, LUCY S. *Here and Now Story Book*. Dutton, 1948 (Rev. and Enl.).
 SAWYER, RUTH. *The Way of the Storyteller*. Viking, 1942.

In a modern readiness program, phonograph recordings of children's stories are utilized to provide related worth-while experiences. A good list of recordings for use with young children is found in Appendix E of Gesell and Ilg's *Infant and Child in the Culture of Today* (20). Another collection of records for children of elementary and high school grades is described in *Recordings for School Use* by Miles. (31)

READINESS BOOKS

One of the most interesting developments of recent years is the reading readiness book. At first, several of these books contained

material which was later found to be unrelated to reading readiness; for example, one readiness book contained exercises designed to preclude the tendency to reverse letters; others contained elaborate mazes through which the child was asked to follow the course of an object from left to right. Moreover, some of the readiness books were apparently designed for school systems where the emphasis was on the mechanics of reading rather than on thought-getting. Such books were in many respects similar to diagnostic tests. Primary attention was centered on items such as noting similarities and differences in lists of letters and words, while little or no attention was given to the meaning of the words.

Modern readiness books are designed to interest the child in reading as a pleasant and profitable experience; the pages of these books, beautifully illustrated, show children engaged in absorbing activities. In one such book a number of pages depict a group of boys and girls reading at home, at school, and in the library. Several stories from library books are then told through a series of colored pictures.

The mechanics of reading is not neglected when a modern readiness book is used; but items such as the recognition of similarities and differences, discrimination of sounds, or attention to the sequence of ideas are emphasized as parts of a broader developmental program. Teachers' manuals contain suggestions for using readiness books efficiently; they also describe additional experiences and activities to promote readiness.

PRE-PRIMERS, PRIMERS, AND FIRST READERS

After pupils have successfully completed their readiness books, they are introduced to stories in pre-primers and primers. They should be guided in understanding each book as a whole as the teacher calls attention to the title and the list of stories in the table of contents. Looking at pictures together, the group will find that the book contains a series of episodes about the same characters; discussion may be lively as the pupils examine and discuss the pictures before they begin to read the stories. Charts may be made by the teacher from the pupils' comments or from the children's own stories which are related to the account they are to read in the book.

Sentence meaning, phrase recognition, and word study should be emphasized in a systematic plan for practice designed to meet the needs of each group and each pupil. Some children need much help and encouragement, while others learn to read well with little aid. Chapter VI of this book contains detailed suggestions for offering guidance to children in reading sentences and phrases; Chapter IV gives special consideration to vocabulary.

Reading takes place satisfactorily for most children when they are guided in reading stories which present combinations of words familiar to them from their own experience and used by them in talking. The number of new words in such stories should not be excessive, but it should be adequate to present, with the assistance of relevant illustrations, episodes which are interesting and meaningful. The best of the modern primers contain a number of stories which are closely related to the child's familiar experience and activities at home and in school. Thus meaning is assured for most pupils and at the same time the difficulty of the passages is reduced because of the familiarity of the episodes. Interest is heightened, too, by the presentation of materials in the natural, pleasing style employed by good authors. The style of writers whose stories have strong appeal to children is preserved in the best pre-primers, primers, and first readers. Some repetition of words is provided, but care is taken to avoid monotonous repetition which results in unnatural or distorted presentation.

RECORDS OF PROGRESS

The teacher should record systematically facts about each child's progress as the first grade program proceeds. She should have a card, or a page in a notebook, for each child, with space to record essential factors which reveal his growth or his difficulties in reading. Records should include the results of periodic testing and observation; comments on the pupil's reading habits and abilities; estimates of his improvement in fundamental reading skills; and notes on changes in his personality and attitudes.

These records should be consulted in planning instruction and in dividing the children into groups according to their varying needs and abilities. The groups should be flexible so that as new difficulties are diagnosed or rapid growth in reading ability is shown, each child

may take his place in the group best suited to his state of development. Thus each child will have an opportunity to read when he is ready.

THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER

Some critics doubt whether it is possible for the average classroom teacher to develop a readiness program of the kind indicated in the preceding discussion. The possibility of attaining this goal varies, of course, in different situations and with different teachers. The following account discusses some characteristics of an effective first grade teacher and later describes how she provided an effective readiness program.

This young woman is a good example of an individual whose mental health is reflected by a happy, useful life. In her case, certain characteristics are outstanding. These traits lead her to emphasize normal, wholesome growth and to recognize the significance of offering each child the opportunities and encouragement needed to promote his maximum growth.

She is interested, too, in the home background and in the parents of the boys and girls. Many of the children in her class come from homes where foreign languages are spoken. She looks upon the different nationalities represented in her group as an opportunity rather than as a limitation. She understands that out of such differences strengths are built. Work in music, art, and creative pursuits of many other kinds is enriched by the contribution of children of different backgrounds and experience.

Another characteristic of this teacher is her tendency to seek new and varied materials and experiences through which her pupils may be led to increasingly higher levels of interest and competency. Through giving recognition and praise for worthy achievement, she helps each child to gain self-confidence and self-respect. These attitudes engender efficient accomplishment. She recognizes also that every child needs to experience the satisfaction of belonging to some group in which he is a contributing, respected member. Accordingly, she offers her pupils many opportunities for sharing experiences. And, finally, she believes in providing systematic instruction and careful guidance so that each pupil may find satisfaction in his own progress and achievement.

All these characteristics of this teacher were clearly revealed during the author's visit to her classroom. When he entered the room, he observed thirty children busily and happily engaged in reading and related activities. One group was seated around a table on which there was a small aquarium. Each pupil was reading a book from a collection of books about fish.

At the adjoining table, another group of pupils was reading from books about circus animals. A number of photographs showed these children gathered around pets belonging to different members of the group. The books being read at the time reflected an interest in the circus which was soon to come to town. Each child was reading a book about circus animals. Figures of clowns were arranged around a miniature circus tent in the center of the table.

Books related to farms and dairy products engaged the attention of a third group. One child pointed with pride to a mural which extended across the wall in the front of the room. The mural depicted a near-by farm which this group had visited. The farmhouse, the fields, and the vegetable garden were effectively interpreted by members of the group. Printed in large letters under the picture was the children's story of their visit.

At another table, a group of children were working independently in practice books. On near-by shelves there were rows of brightly colored textbooks. On the bulletin board notices were posted regarding letters to be written, an assembly period, a thank-you note to be sent to another class, and a reminder of individual responsibilities in caring for the garden. A collection of drawings filled a near-by table. Under each drawing a pupil had written a phrase, a sentence, or a story, "We visit a dairy farm," "The stiff-legged goat." One picture portrayed a neighboring farm. The title for this picture was *Oak Crest Farm in the Morning*. In the corner were these lines:

Designed by Joe

Painted by Mary

The teacher remarked that paintings and written compositions were frequently the products of two or three pupils. Other activities were engaged in by larger groups as well as by the class as a whole.

A half hour went by quickly. The teacher moved about the room, helped boys and girls who were having difficulty, and encouraged children to find other books when they had finished a story. Later,

she announced that it was time for the pupils to share their stories. The children went to one end of the large room and gathered around the teacher. During the following fifteen or twenty minutes, eight pupils related what they had read. One told of the stiff-legged goat he had seen on a farm. Then he read aloud a few sentences from a story about a goat and held up the pictures. Several other children gave brief summaries of stories and read a few passages aloud. The teacher assured the remaining members of the group that at later times they would have an opportunity to read aloud passages they had selected. The oral reading comprehension and interest of the group were excellent. (38)

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

The discussion throughout this chapter makes it clear that teachers should increasingly base their considerations of reading readiness on the needs of each child. It has been shown that there is no easy road to a discovery of these needs. Hence, there are no simple formulas by which readiness for reading can be predicted. However, out of the recent experimentation in child development there is emerging a new knowledge concerning basic principles that govern efficient instruction in reading.

Good teachers appreciate fully that all children will not be ready to read at the same time. Patience is needed by parents and teachers in dealing with children who are slow in learning to read. Some children who are slow in the beginning stages do catch up with their classmates; others do not. Willard C. Olson illustrates this fact vividly through the records of two equally bright girls, one of whom made little progress at first, while the other made rapid initial gains in acquiring reading skill. When they were seven years old, one attained a score on reading tests equal to that of an eight and one half year old child, while the other read only on the level of the typical child of six and one half years. At nine, the first pupil reached the norm for children of age ten years, six months; but the latter attained only the seven year norm. At this time, the two children were three years apart in reading ability. During the following year and one half, the child who had been developing slowly suddenly began to make very rapid progress. At age eleven, both girls were two years accelerated in reading attainment. (35)

This example illustrates the variation which sometimes may be found in children's growth. Such variations, although unusual, reflect the fact that many factors determine readiness for and success in reading (39). The teacher should be prepared to study and evaluate each of these items as it relates to reading achievement. She should be prepared also to offer the guidance and help which will contribute to the development of reading readiness. Under appropriate guidance, most children in an average community will be able to attain some proficiency in reading simple materials during their first year in school. Accordingly, the first grade teacher assumes responsibility for building up the physical conditions of every child, for making sure that defects in vision or hearing are corrected, and for maintaining a classroom atmosphere which will aid in the development of self-confidence and social adequacy. Important also are the following items which help to prepare for efficient reading:

- Varied forms of language activity associated with children's experiences and interests
- Opportunities for children to hear and to tell stories
- Activities which enable boys and girls to enjoy rhymes, jingles, and poems
- Experiences which lead children to become interested in books
- Activities in which pupils enjoy and interpret pictures
- Experience in dictating stories and in examining records or charts
- Exercises in auditory and visual discrimination, and in other simple habits related to reading skill, such as the tendency to make left to right movement of the eyes

It is well to bear in mind that the essentials of a readiness program include: an enthusiastic, capable teacher, a friendly classroom atmosphere, wide experience for pupils, and abundant opportunities for individually suitable language expression. The child provided with these conditions will acquire a basic stock of sight words associated with concepts that have grown out of his own experience. Understanding of these words may be clarified further by discussion of the content of experience charts. Varied picture materials, with objects in the pictures labeled, may aid in establishing a sight vocabulary. Mounted pictures, filmstrips, or films may also be used in building or clarifying concepts. Discussion of stories narrated by the teacher or by the pupils will also help to extend and enrich

the child's vocabulary. When the child is secure in recognizing a relatively small number of words and has made unmistakable progress in the related activities referred to in the preceding paragraph, he should be introduced to his first pre-primer. But it should be kept in mind that the readiness process does not stop at this point. For the same elements that have contributed to the pupil's success at first will continue to operate as he reads other first grade materials. Therefore, the teacher continues to study each child's readiness and to help him prepare step by step for success in reading. Nor do the foregoing suggestions imply that readiness will not be a concern in later grades. In this chapter, emphasis has been given to safeguarding readiness throughout the first grade. In many ways this period may be regarded as the most crucial, since the child who makes a successful, happy beginning in learning to read will usually continue to find success and pleasure in this activity.

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Vocabulary Growth and Development

VOCABULARY development has been a source of increased concern since the period 1920 to 1930 when attention was repeatedly directed to the unjustifiably large vocabulary of beginning textbooks in reading. The vocabulary of textbooks was compared with the frequency counts of words in lists; extremely large and difficult vocabularies were cited in various textbooks. Accordingly, an era of vocabulary reduction and simplification began.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF WORD LISTS

Edward L. Thorndike made one of the first comprehensive lists; *The Teacher's Word Book*, published in 1921, contained 10,000 words. A revision in 1931 extended the count to 20,000, while the 1944 edition by Thorndike and Lorge included 30,000 words. (37)

Thorndike and Lorge recommend that teachers use the symbols in *The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words* to select words for emphasis in various grades. For example, in grades I and II, emphasis should be placed upon words designated by the symbol AA and upon other words of "great practical service." The careful selection of words in accord with the designations is considered desirable throughout grades I to VIII. However, in grades IX to XII, the authors recommend great flexibility since:

The value set upon widening a pupil's vocabulary versus improving his taste, improving his effectiveness in speech and writing, and various other achievements of the high school teaching of English varies from city to city and from teacher to teacher.

Moreover, the method used to widen vocabulary varies from thorough learning of many words to relying mainly upon learning enough on each occasion from context, dictionary, and explanation to serve the needs of that occasion. So we offer no rules like those for grades 1 to 8. (37, Introduction)

Another recent list, compiled by Henry D. Rinsland (32), was derived from a count of over six million running words found in the written work of pupils in grades I through VIII. The analysis included: reports of projects, personal notes, original stories, poems, accounts prepared for school papers, and tests written in nontechnical fields.

More than 200,000 individual papers were examined and a list of 25,632 different words was assembled. The words which appeared three or more times in any one grade are presented in alphabetical order. A convenient table presents these 14,571 words according to their frequency in each grade.

A third widely used word list was prepared by Buckingham and Dolch for the construction of textbooks (4). They state:

The first way in which one may determine the size of a grade vocabulary to be selected from a word-count list is by a consideration of the probable vocabulary development of the average child. If we know approximately what size of vocabulary to expect, we can simply count down from the high end of the frequency list until we have included the assumed number of words. . . . Thorndike's summary of a number of these studies gives us our best evidence for judging how large a word list we may expect the average child of any particular grade to know.

. . . Some of the studies indicate that the curve at the beginning of grade I should start at 3000 words. The makers of the Kindergarten Union list have placed this point at about 2000. We may accept that figure as a conservative estimate, fully recognizing that many children of high intelligence and wide experience enter school with a vocabulary development one or two years ahead of their less favored fellows. Between these two extremes all seem to be agreed that the curve should be slightly concave upward, becoming steeper year by year. . . .

The figures for each year represent the total average vocabulary *at the end* of that year. The annual increase for any grade is easily secured by subtracting the total for the grade before. (4, p. 8)

The number of words assigned to each grade is given below (4, p. 9):

YEARLY INCREASES	
<i>Grade</i>	<i>Number of Words</i>
I	800
II	800
III	900
IV	900
V	1000
VI	1100
VII	1200
VIII	1300

As a result of "word counts" and recommendations by educators, some publishers assumed that vocabularies in reading textbooks should be rigidly controlled and limited. During the period 1925 to 1940, the makers of these textbooks not only tended to restrict vocabulary narrowly, but also to repeat words again and again in order that "basic" vocabularies might be thoroughly mastered. At the pre-primer and primer level, this reduction was often carried to an extreme. Some pre-primers contained such a meager vocabulary that little useful work in concept building could be accomplished. Moreover, the repetition of words was so great that monotony resulted and children lost interest in the stories. In fact, some primers were designed chiefly to introduce and repeat a few words, not to present useful information or interesting stories.

RECENT STUDIES OF VOCABULARY SIZE

Recent investigations have discredited the foregoing extreme practices. For example, Robert Seashore and his students have presented a series of studies which lead one to believe that most vocabulary estimates have been far too low (35). Mary Katherine Smith, working with Seashore, studied the vocabularies of children in grades I through XII in three public school systems. She attempted to determine the number of words for which these children knew some correct meaning. The tabulation on the following page shows her estimates of the words known by pupils in the various grades. (35, p. 4)

<i>Grade</i>	<i>Basic</i>	<i>Derived</i>	<i>Total</i>
1	16,900	7,100	24,000
2	22,000	12,000	34,000
3	26,000	18,000	44,000
4	26,200	18,800	45,000
5	28,500	22,500	51,000
6	31,500	18,000	49,500
7	35,000	20,000	55,000
8	36,000	20,000	56,000
9	38,500	24,000	62,500
10	40,200	37,300	67,500
11	43,500	29,500	73,000
12	46,500	33,500	80,000

In the above study, a word was defined as an entry in the Funk and Wagnalls unabridged dictionary. This dictionary contains 167,000 basic words and 204,000 derivatives. Systematic samples were taken so as to include "the third word down from the top of the left hand column of every eighth page. This gave a total of 331 basic words. Comparisons with three other samples taken from different positions at equal intervals throughout the dictionary showed all these samples to be of approximately equal difficulty. . . . This procedure, then, produced a vocabulary test short enough for convenient administration but representative enough to permit an estimate of the score the subject would make if he were tested on every word appearing in the unabridged dictionary." (35, p. 4)

The repeated use of this test and approach led to the conclusion that most of our common beliefs about vocabulary size "are grossly in error and practically always are underestimates . . ." (35, p. 5). The reader will be interested in comparing the recent compilations by Seashore and Smith, disclosing an increase of approximately 5000 words per grade, with the more meager estimates of others or with practices followed in constructing some school readers. According to Seashore, the makers of many reading textbooks assume that children can master, on the average, only about 500 new words per year.

How is one to account for the wide differences in vocabulary estimates? A number of factors have undoubtedly contributed to the underestimation of children's vocabularies. For example, the

vocabulary rating in the *Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test* is obtained from responses to a sample of fifty words. These words were selected from a vest pocket dictionary containing only 18,000 words. Seashore states that:

... unless we give a person an opportunity to show all of the words that he knows by taking a sample from the *unabridged* dictionary we simply do not know the true size of his vocabulary.

[Another] source of misinformation stems from the findings on frequency lists of words such as those of Thorndike and many others, that a running count of all the words found in newspapers, personal correspondence, etc., will be made up very largely of a relatively small number of words which are used over and over again in countless situations. (35, p. 9)

Analyses of effective addresses, such as those of Franklin D. Roosevelt, may also reveal the use of a relatively small vocabulary and lead some observers to conclude that a large vocabulary is not required for effective speaking or writing. It should be borne in mind, however, that the rare words give color and distinction to such individual expression, and a rich vocabulary is necessary if the individual is to choose the most appropriate and effective words to combine with common words. It is true that a small number of different words is employed in some convincing writing and speaking; but the authors in such cases choose a few rare, colorful, or distinctive words from a large repertory.

The consequences of vocabulary underestimation have been far reaching. Seashore asserts that as a result of inaccurate estimates of vocabulary: "Much of our educational procedure is geared to a pedestrian pace in vocabulary growth that is, at best, unrealistic, and at worst, a hindrance to all but the slowest of our pupils. . . . In the past, we have been blinded by an accumulated folklore regarding rates of growth and total sizes of vocabulary. There is an urgent need to replace this misinformation with more valid data." (35, pp. 14-15)

Other writers stress the dangers of too limited vocabulary control. For example, Gerald A. Yoakum states:

As has been pointed out earlier in this paper, the fact of individual differences suggests the need for different reading sequences for children of different capacities. But it does not indicate that

easier sequences are necessary for either the average or rapid learner. And since the easier sequences generally result in restricted vocabulary, the result of the use of easier sequences with average and fast learners may be to retard their maximum growth in reading rather than to increase it. (50, p. 107)

Clarence R. Stone voices concern as follows:

In methods and materials in primary grade reading, we have tended to go to extremes, of which the present unjustifiable restriction of vocabulary is an example. We have the problem of providing for adequate vocabulary expansion along with the problem of providing sufficiently easy material at each level. (36, p. 455)

In a similar vein, Alfred S. Lewerenz writes:

The interesting book has relatively many image-bearing or sensory impression words. Quantities of adjectives, adverbs, and verbs are employed which awaken the imagination. The dry books, on the other hand, employ relatively few descriptive terms that have inherent descriptive value. (26, p. 154)

From the foregoing considerations, it would seem that primary reading methods which stress the repetition of a very limited number of words are unjustifiable. Several investigators question seriously the value of the oversimplified textbook. As Boney and Lynch report:

Our study was made primarily to determine growths that first grade children made in the acquisition of reading skills. . . . We used almost every type of material on the market, and we did not bar any methods that a teacher believed would work. . . . Vocabulary burden is considered by several authorities to be most significant in the beginning reading instruction. We found that we had used for the first two thousand words read a vocabulary burden that is considered very light (one new word introduced to every twenty-six running words) and a vocabulary burden that is considered very heavy (one new word introduced to every ten running words), but this factor had little or no relation to success in reading. (1, pp. 118, 120)

Most educators will grant that a broader approach to vocabulary development is needed. Primary textbooks have, it appears, some-

times introduced too few words to challenge pupils and to stimulate vocabulary growth. Moreover, there has been too little attention to the continuous development of a vocabulary associated closely with the firsthand experience of boys and girls. The learning and retention of vocabulary have depended largely upon repetition of words in formal textbooks and practice books, and too little emphasis has been placed upon concept building through wide reading, discussion, and direct firsthand experience.

THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF PARENTS TO VOCABULARY BUILDING

The cultivation of vocabulary should be an issue of importance to all persons whose lives touch those of boys and girls. Parents can make an important contribution to vocabulary growth and enrichment. However, they need information concerning the way language grows and affects the child's adjustment and behavior. According to authorities, the first word is used when the child is about twelve months of age. He acquires a considerable number of words each month thereafter until he is able to employ, when he is about two years of age, approximately 250 different words, each having a definite meaning with a specific relationship to his basic needs and purposes (27). The importance of these acquisitions is revealed by the fact that after the child has acquired a few words, he is able to make his needs known directly, and by use of questions he becomes capable of acquiring information in many areas.

During the age interval from two to six, the child adds hundreds of words each year to his speaking vocabulary. According to some authorities the number of new words added each year is about 600 (27). Almost incredible is the fact that by the time the typical child is ready to go to school, he has actually used about 2500 different words (16, 27). In addition to these words, there are many more whose meaning he knows. When one reflects upon the rapidity of this development, he recognizes the responsibility of parents for providing guidance and nurture during the preschool years.

The first obligation of parents centers in the provision of an atmosphere favorable to wide experience and experimentation with language. To make mistakes comfortably is a privilege which children should enjoy; and parents should display patience, apprecia-

tion, and interest as the child attempts to convey his understandings and feelings through words. They should provide good models in speech and make sure that their own language is correct and clear.

Moreover, clarity in communication should be the basic test by which parents evaluate children's language acquisitions. They should inquire: "Is my child finding genuine pleasure in his expanding vocabulary? Are meanings clear and associations accurate?" In other words, is the child communicating successfully, and with pleasure?

Parents should recognize the significance of the answers they give to children's questions. The child's first questions appear early; the number increases rapidly until he is three or four years of age. When a child is able to use questions, he no longer has to depend on learning solely through his own sensory reactions. He can now obtain many understandings indirectly, with the help of other persons. At four, the child is an inveterate questioner. Parents need to exhibit greater patience and sympathy at this time than formerly, for they will be surfeited by questions. They should bear in mind that their answers provide children with essential information for understanding the world of persons, things, and events.

In the home environment questions are more frequent than elsewhere. In fact, it has been reported that about one fifth of the child's remarks at home are in question form between ages four to eight (16). Questions are used for purposes other than to secure information; they enable the child to obtain or divert attention, to establish or maintain social contacts, and to express distaste or delight.

The child's first questions usually start with "what" or "where" as he examines and explores the world. His inclination to ask another type of question — prefaced by "how," "when," and "why" — reflects his attainment of another stage in growth. He cannot progress far or rapidly at this time without a sympathetic guide. And, once again and fittingly, this role belongs to the parent. The parent should be patient in providing answers; he should be thoughtful and ingenious in attempting to ascertain what different answers *mean* to each child; and he should endeavor to see that answers appropriate to each child's maturity are offered. Moreover, the parent should be resourceful in supplying experiences and materials by which the child can verify or correct his own understanding

of the expressions he employs. When the child is given encouragement and offered wide opportunities for expression, his development tends to be satisfactory. Supervision should be judiciously and sparingly given; for the child must make discoveries, and experience the joy and adventure of finding out for himself the meaning of new language patterns. However, suggestions are often appropriate and beneficial. For example, when the child is four or five years of age, he should be led to realize that questions phrased as complete sentences are more acceptable and rewarding than fragments, or single words. And he should be encouraged to check the accuracy of some answers by his own firsthand experience. The parent's answer may then verify the child's own observations, or serve to supplement his direct experience in a meaningful manner.

Observation, sympathy, and understanding should be exercised in guiding the unusually talkative child, while stimulation and encouragement may be particularly helpful in the case of the young child who appears uncommunicative. Sympathetic social relationships and firsthand experience associated with language expression often bring about remarkable cures for behavior difficulties as well as for speech problems.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE TEACHER IN VOCABULARY BUILDING

The foregoing discussion reveals some characteristics of the home atmosphere in which language is nourished best. The teacher should attempt to provide a similarly desirable atmosphere for growth. Moreover, the teacher should inaugurate a program for vocabulary development which recognizes the significance of the following activities.

PROMOTING FIRSTHAND EXPERIENCE

Children need wide and varied firsthand experience as a basis for expression and for the development of clear concepts associated with words. During their first year at school they should learn the meaning of words that stand for common objects they have seen and for others they will encounter at home or elsewhere. Children are too frequently required to "learn" new words simply by repeating them aloud or by completing exercises in workbooks. For

example, the author discussed with one fourth grade pupil the problems in arithmetic he was attempting to solve in his workbook. One problem required that he find the number of acres in four sections of land. After referring to the answer in the back of the book, he tried several approaches until he finally obtained the correct answer. When he was asked: "What is an acre?" he promptly replied: "It's a park." The park near by was an acre in size. This association was the only one his experience had provided for the word *acre*. Obviously, teachers at every level should make a diligent effort to insure that the words which convey the essence of passages are understood.

The role of experience is of special significance when the child is introduced to reading materials. The first words to be read should be related to his own experience at home and in school. The use of pupil-dictated charts, described in Chapter III, offers an effective way of providing reading materials associated with firsthand observation and experience. From these charts a vocabulary can be developed to constitute each child's basic stock of sight words. The use of a multiple-sensory approach is desirable in establishing the meaning of these words. Clarity will be given to the meaning of a word such as *chair* by having children observe a real chair, handle it, sit in it, lift it, and in other ways sense its essential characteristics. Thus a variety of reactions will insure understanding of the word and its referent. The child should be offered an opportunity for similar experiences with several kinds of chairs in order that he will not associate the word *chair* with a particular type of chair and experience confusion when he finds that other kinds of chairs are also referred to by this word. The reading readiness book may also be used to build or strengthen concepts. Most teachers will find that the readiness book and the experience chart will reinforce each other and provide a sound basis for concept building.

Further development of vocabulary should be provided through the introduction of pre-primers, primers, and first grade readers. It is necessary also, in order to promote growth and to care for individual differences in ability and interest, to offer opportunities for reading from a wide variety of materials in addition to textbooks. Chapter III suggests sources from which such materials may be obtained.

DEVELOPING CONCEPTS FOR ABSTRACT TERMS

Some words, it is clear, cannot be learned through a direct sensory approach. Words such as *honesty*, *charity*, *democracy*, illustrate one group of such words. These words form the core of the vocabulary in the social studies. Failure to comprehend the meanings of such abstract words frequently precludes communication, creates confusion, and leads to misunderstanding or actual emotional disturbance. Some teachers have developed effective ways for dealing with these words. Here, for example, is a method one teacher employs. The pupils in her class make each week a list of new or difficult words which they encounter in the social studies text. Several words are singled out as being most important for the understanding of the passages under consideration. These words are discussed by the class and definitions are formulated. These definitions, at the end of a period of discussion, frequently fall into two groups. The first group includes those words whose meanings, the pupils agree, are reasonably clear, although there are sometimes several equally acceptable definitions for them. But the meanings of the words in the second group are vague. Committees are appointed to make investigations of these words and to submit the results at the next class meeting. Discussion follows and the meanings of the terms are clarified. Sometimes several definitions are again found to be acceptable for a word as it appears in different contexts. These definitions are placed in *Our Social Studies Word Book*, with illustrations from the text of the use of each word. (46)

FOSTERING WORD STUDY

Word analysis and word study will help pupils in pronouncing words and in securing the meanings of new words. Analytic word study should start with known words; the total characteristics of words should be noted; and then their parts should be examined. Pupils should be led to analyze new words visually and to develop the habit of noticing similarities and differences in words. Studying the results of adding prefixes or suffixes will also prove helpful; but this endeavor, like all forms of word analysis, should be considered secondary to emphasis on meaning, understanding, and the correct use of whole words. Chapter VI contains detailed suggestions for

making and using various types of exercises in word analysis and word study.

Junior and senior high school teachers frequently become discouraged because pupils gain little help in discovering the meanings of new words from prolonged study of the derivations of words and of prefixes, suffixes, and roots. This failure results, perhaps, from the fact that beginnings and endings of many words were integrated and their precise meanings were lost as the English language evolved. If teachers will bear in mind that the meanings of words should first be ascertained by study of the function or use of each word, parts of words may then be profitably examined. Through such an approach, students will be prepared for the exceptions and variations they will encounter as they employ knowledge of prefixes, suffixes, or roots to enhance their understanding of word meanings.

DEVELOPING SPECIALIZED VOCABULARIES AND ENCOURAGING EXTENSIVE READING

Greater attention should be given to the specialized vocabularies found in different subject fields such as geography, history, and arithmetic. Many of the terms used in these areas are poorly understood. The teacher will find it helpful to assemble pictures to portray or illustrate new or difficult words. In the field of geography, for example, a series of pictures may readily be assembled to clarify confusing terms necessary in reading maps or in studying terrain. Filmstrips or motion pictures may also be used in developing concepts associated with the specialized vocabularies of science or other technical fields. In Chapter VI, additional suggestions will be found for fostering the understanding of specialized vocabularies.

Wide reading is another way to promote vocabulary development. In Chapter II, this topic is fully developed in connection with the study of children's interests. As knowledge and understanding are increased through extensive reading, so too is the child's vocabulary developed and enriched.

IMPROVING VOCABULARY THROUGH CREATIVE WRITING

The expression of feelings and thoughts through creative writing also contributes to vocabulary development. Clear evidence of the value of creative expression is revealed by the following incident.

One day a teacher noticed a small, much folded piece of yellow paper on her desk. A dandelion had been placed with apparent haste in a corner of the page, which contained the following poem:

See pure gold!
Why do people love it so?
And keep it in a store
When a yellow dandelion's
Purer, cheaper — so much more.
The metal is so hard and cold
This little weed's a better gold.* (46, p. 19)

Any teacher might have been pleased by this poem. But in this instance there was unusual satisfaction, for the child who had composed the poem had been withdrawn, sensitive, and diffident; and this was her first really spontaneous expression. But it was not her last, for her teacher promptly used the poem as proof of her ability. The poem was shared and praised by her classmates, and the incident marked the beginning of a new life for this child — a life of security and successful endeavor. Moreover, her self-confidence led to greater freedom and facility in communicating with her associates. As a result, her vocabulary improved.

One of the best examples of a cooperative project in which the teachers of an entire school sought to improve writing, is reported in *Mental Health in the Classroom* (41, pp. 149–161). In a chapter prepared by the principal and the teachers, the procedures used and some of the results are set forth. One finds that creative writing served in this school as an important means of promoting vocabulary development through varied forms of written expression. Creative writing was considered as any form of composition designed to satisfy the child's need: (1) for keeping records of significant experience, (2) for sharing experience with an interested group, and (3) for unhampered expression of feelings or thoughts.

In this school, it became clear that creative writing flourished when experiences were rich and varied and when free individual expression was encouraged. The teachers stressed the value of increasing the child's sensitivity to the world of things about him. And they

* To the teachers and pupils of the Willard School, Evanston, Illinois, the author is indebted for the use of this poem.

were no less insistent on the importance of fostering social sensitivity through group participation.

Children's sensitivity to the world of things can be increased by encouraging them to explore their near-by environment, by leading them to visit and observe local places of interest, and by providing new and varied experiences within the school itself. Social sensitivity may be enhanced by discussion in the classroom, and by varied activities in which experiences are shared. In many schools, there is little opportunity for boys and girls to present their written work to their classmates and thus to obtain suggestions and critical comment from their peers. Because of the positive value of such experiences it is desirable for the teacher to inquire periodically: What opportunities have been offered for pupils to discuss their written work with their classmates? What experiences need most to be shared? How can every child be encouraged to share his writings? The teacher will find that the quality of children's writing usually improves under conditions which foster creative expression and the sharing of written products. After all, developing a concern for communication is the surest and most dependable means of engendering a desire to write clearly and correctly. Such a desire necessitates discrimination in the use of words and leads to growth in vocabulary.

APPLICATION OF PRINCIPLES OF VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT IN THE ARMY

The foregoing principles which govern vocabulary growth were derived from work in public schools. An unusual opportunity arose to test the validity of these principles during World War II. The following account describes how, under the author's supervision, these principles were applied in a program designed for illiterate and non-English-speaking men.

Before devising instructional materials, a list containing the words most frequently used by the soldier in his daily life was prepared. This list was drawn up from counts of words found in the *Soldier's Handbook* and other manuals, as well as from study of word usage in various routine Army situations. Consideration was given to the frequency ratings of these words in the preparation of instructional materials for teaching the three R's. Several specialized lists were

also developed for use in devising instructional materials for military subjects such as *Defense Against Chemical Attack* and *Military Discipline and Courtesy*. (39, 42, 44, 48, 49)

DEVELOPING A SIGHT VOCABULARY

The first step in vocabulary building involved the cultivation of a basic stock of sight words. It should be kept in mind that many men assigned to Special Training Units (for illiterate and non-English-speaking men) were unable to recognize even five or ten printed words, and that all of them needed help in order to read silently even the simplest passages.

Various ways of presenting the basic stock of sight words were considered. It was decided to experiment with the filmstrip approach in getting the men "ready to read." A filmstrip is a continuous series of still pictures, charts, or diagrams. Speed of projection is controlled by the instructor, who can retain any frame (picture) in a filmstrip as long as necessary to assure mastery of its contents. Moreover, any frame or series of frames may be reviewed many times.*

Forty-six nouns of high frequency in the general vocabulary list were presented in the filmstrip *The Story of Private Pete*. These words were not only generally useful in routine Army life, but they were also employed in the first part of the *Army Reader*, the textbook devised for these men.

The Story of Private Pete is made up of four series of frames dealing with Private Pete's first experience in camp: (1) "Private Pete and His Uniform," frames 1 to 12; (2) "Private Pete Looks at His Camp," frames 13 to 22; (3) "Private Pete Eats His Dinner," frames 23 to 33; and (4) "Private Pete Goes to Bed," frames 34 to 44. Each series consists of approximately ten frames which present an over-all picture of a camp scene and several breakdowns of the scene with attention centered on certain objects through the use of

* The following filmstrips were developed for use in Special Training Units: *A Soldier's General Orders*; *Military Discipline and Courtesy*; *How to Wear Your Uniform*; *The Story of Private Pete*, a reading filmstrip to teach a basic stock of sight words; *Introduction to Numbers*, for stressing vocabulary, relationships, and concepts; *Introduction to Language* (Parts 1 and 2), two filmstrips, one for teaching nouns and the other for presenting verbs and prepositions; and *The World*, for introducing geographic vocabulary and concepts.

word labels. The largest number of new words included on any frame is three.

After about eight or ten frames are shown to introduce the words and objects in a series, a single frame is used to present the objects in a new relationship. There are no labels on this frame; it is followed by another frame containing a picture which includes all objects previously identified and all words used in the preceding frames of the series. Thus one may check with ease the student's recognition of the words. Two summary scenes follow. Under these pictures, a printed story presents the words in each series in meaningful context. The use of these frames provides additional opportunity for review and for stressing contextual reading. Through this approach the student is offered a challenging, highly interesting, and natural experience with language. Two other filmstrips, *Introduction to Language* (Parts 1 and 2), were designed to extend vocabulary and to introduce thirty-one verbs and twelve prepositions.

When the soldiers were able to recognize quickly the words presented in the first language filmstrip, *The Story of Private Pete*, the textbook, the *Army Reader*, was introduced as the second step in the vocabulary building program. Instruction in silent and oral reading then proceeded rapidly. The other two language filmstrips were used after the men had had considerable experience in reading simple passages. Through the use of these filmstrips, successful performance in dealing with more difficult reading was fostered and steady progress was assured.

ENLARGING A SPEAKING VOCABULARY

Suggestions for developing a speaking vocabulary were provided in *Instruction in Special Training Units*, a guide for teachers. It was pointed out that the instructor should recognize that facility in oral expression precedes skill in silent reading. Instructors were directed to encourage discussion and to provide practice in pronouncing a few common words, phrases, and sentences. Several ways of stressing the meanings of nouns were illustrated in the guide; for example, pointing to an object or a picture to clarify the meanings of certain nouns. For words denoting action or feeling, gestures and demonstrations were suggested as means of promoting understanding.

Considerable attention was given in the guide to simple principles of language instruction which have been publicized in popular books such as *Language in Action* (14) and *People in Quandaries* (18). For example, it was indicated that many important Army words were symbols for easily identifiable things or activities. Words like "gun," "drill," "flag," "fight," and "march" were part of the soldier's daily experience; they could be associated readily with familiar things or routine activity.

Certain group words were differentiated; for example, nouns like "rifle" and "barracks" were illustrated by reference to particular objects; while words such as "flags," "airplanes," and "soldiers" were shown to stand for classes or groups of objects or persons.

The teaching of abstract words such as "brave" and "freedom" received special consideration. Since the general experience of the students was broad and varied, they were encouraged to define this type of word in terms of their own experience. Group discussion and exchange of ideas were suggested as necessary steps in clarifying the meanings of many abstract terms.

In this work it was recommended that the teacher introduce concrete or "name" words first and then proceed to abstract or "idea" words. Thus the work began with the names, or labels, for objects the men could see and touch. Useful verbs such as "eat," "walk," and "march" were also presented early in the training cycle. Demonstrations or illustrations were used as aids in deriving the meanings of these words. Other "basic" verbs such as "get," "give," "have," and "be" were presented in the filmstrip devoted to verbs. Prepositions were also used with certain verbs in order to enable the student to express many ideas and yet use only a few verbs. (42)

Instructors were directed not to be too much concerned at first about correct enunciation or precise grammatical usage. Emphasis was placed instead upon making sure that the student succeeded in presenting his thoughts or ideas clearly. Every man was made to feel that what he had to say was important and interesting. Impromptu dramatization of personal experiences or stories from books and magazines was suggested as a way to bring about freedom and ease in speaking. It was recommended that those men who were unable at first to take part in dramatization be asked to read their favorite comic strips in dialog form.

BUILDING A SILENT READING VOCABULARY

In the guide, *Instruction in Special Training Units*, the following steps in learning a word were emphasized: simple recognition, appreciation of the various meanings of a single word, and depth of understanding.

The first step dealt with the recognition of nouns, such as "chair," which can be readily associated with a particular object. The instructor was directed to relate each word to an object by pointing or by use of a picture. The instructor wrote the word on the blackboard and pronounced it several times. The students pronounced the word, identified the object for which it stood, and used the word in sentences. Flash cards were then utilized in drills to foster rapid recognition.

In the second step the student's attention was directed to the varied meanings of some nouns; for example, the student was encouraged to observe the difference between the chairs used in the classroom, in the post theater, and in the dayroom.

The third step involved the provision of varied sensory experiences to assure a full understanding of the different objects to which words refer. The handling of different kinds of chairs provided kinesthetic associations; visual associations were established by use of pictures; and in other ways additional sensory experiences were offered to sharpen the intensity of reaction and to insure recall.

Several methods for helping the students obtain the meaning of new words in different contexts were presented in the guide. It was pointed out that the student might attempt to guess the meaning of the new word by examining its use in a sentence in which almost all words were familiar. For example, the new word "chalk" might be presented in the sentence: "He writes on the blackboard with 'chalk.'" In this case, the student who knew the words "write" and "blackboard" usually grasped the meaning of the new word because of its obvious relationship to familiar words.

It was recommended that examples be drawn from the student's direct experience to show the varied meanings of other words. For instance, attention of the students was directed to sentences in which words such as "serve" and "order" were used as illustrations. Examples of these sentences may be found on the following page.

The officer "serves" as captain.

The cook "serves" the food.

The soldier "serves" his country.

The soldier must have his "general orders."

The soldier is "ordered" to report.

The barracks are in good "order."

The above general principles were presented, illustrated, and applied in the general guide. In addition, the guides designed specifically for the filmstrips treated word study and word analysis further. Attention was directed to the beginnings and endings of words, to certain vowel and consonant sounds, and to common variations in pronunciation of letter combinations, syllables, and words.

DEVELOPING SPECIAL VOCABULARIES AND USING SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

Filmstrips, graphic portfolios, and other visual aids were employed to foster understanding and to promote rapid learning of special vocabularies in subjects such as *Defense Against Chemical Attack*. On the drill field, too, the giving and timing of commands were planned so that every man would comprehend fully what was required.

Supplementary reading materials offered additional reading experience of direct usefulness. For example, one booklet — *Your Job in the Army* — described the various jobs the men might enter when they completed basic training. This manual contained another special vocabulary of useful words and phrases. Visual aids in the form of attractive photographs and drawings also served to enhance or clarify the meanings of the words used in this booklet. Other publications provided for vocabulary extension. The weekly *Newsmap* (special edition for these men) contained reading matter which kept the trainees up to date on the progress of the war; at the same time it offered a valuable means of clarifying the meanings of words through the use of maps and pictures. In addition, a monthly periodical, *Our War*, contained accounts of some outstanding leaders on the fighting front and at home.

It will be noted that this program for the Army simply applied the basically sound principles for vocabulary development which

are followed in good schools. Every effort had one primary function — to promote clear, accurate communication through the correct use of words.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

In this chapter, we have presented certain principles of vocabulary development which are widely followed by good teachers. We have observed that, in the evolution of these principles, interest centered at one time in the compilation of lists of words and in restriction of the vocabulary in textbooks. Gradually the emphasis shifted; at the present time attention is given to concept building and to the development of vocabularies designed to enable pupils to read according to their varied purposes and needs.

There are approximately 700,000 words in the English language. Of course, teachers cannot present all these words. Nor can they provide the necessary experience to clarify the meanings of all words in the specialized vocabularies of the subject fields. But there are significant steps that they can take in an effort to help pupils acquire functionally useful vocabularies. They can encourage varied first-hand experience which will afford the basis for meaningful vocabulary development. They can lead children to appreciate the fact that words have different meanings and that context affects or determines meanings. Although teachers should stress the different meanings of certain words, they should not confuse children by introducing too many meanings or meanings that are foreign to children's experience.

Teachers can do much to promote vocabulary growth by introducing pupils to profitable forms of word study and word analysis. These efforts should be initiated after a basic stock of sight words has been acquired. Teachers can offer assistance to pupils in the use of picture dictionaries and other standard sources for obtaining information. Pupils should be encouraged to study the different meanings found in the dictionary and to select quickly the most appropriate definition. Discussion of definitions will aid pupils in acquiring clear concepts.

Wide reading will also enable the student to extend his experience vicariously and, as a result, to increase his vocabulary. Teachers can offer further assistance by encouraging pupils to master the

specialized vocabularies of various subject areas. If vocabulary development is looked upon as a part of a larger language arts program that aims to foster clear communication, additional gains will be made.

Teachers should recognize the potential value of forces outside the classroom, such as the radio and the motion picture. Through the use, direction, and correlation of these varied forces and activities, the teacher can help every pupil to acquire a functionally useful vocabulary and a positive attitude toward vocabulary building.

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The Role of Children's Books in a Balanced Reading Program

WHAT characteristics or qualities of stories appeal strongly to boys and to girls? Why do children choose certain books and reject others? In recent years, a number of authors have attempted to answer these questions. Some parents have described the responses of their own children (14). Other writers have listed the favorite books reported by children (40). Still others have compiled the titles and analyzed the content of library books repeatedly selected by children and young people (31). Such studies have led to certain conclusions concerning the nature of the popular book or story.

FACTORS WHICH ATTRACT CHILDREN TO STORIES AND POEMS

Young children like stories told in simple language similar to their own direct, vigorous expression. They enjoy accounts which cause them to recall familiar sights, sounds, odors, and tastes. Clearly defined plot is another characteristic which accounts for the popularity of some narratives. This element undoubtedly contributes to the general appeal of adventure and mystery stories. In such stories, the action is rapid and events move directly to the climax.

Animal stories are liked by almost all children. In the kindergarten and the primary grades they are very popular. Fairy tales, too, have a well deserved place in every child's reading. They are especially appropriate for many children in the upper primary or early intermediate grades. Children need at times to read stories

which carry them away from the world of reality and enable them to find drama, joy, and escape in imaginary happenings. Any parent or teacher who has observed children carefully will note the extreme pleasure such reading affords. Paul Hazard, in his sympathetic discussion of *Books, Children & Men*, describes the attitude of children in the following passage:

"Give us books," say the children; "give us wings. You who are powerful and strong, help us to escape into the faraway. Build us azure palaces in the midst of enchanted gardens. Show us fairies strolling about in the moonlight. We are willing to learn everything that we are taught at school, but, please, let us keep our dreams." (20, p. 4)

Fairy stories have persisted in popularity through many centuries because they are almost universal in their appeal to each succeeding generation. Again quoting Paul Hazard:

Fairy tales are like beautiful mirrors of water, so deep and crystal clear! In their depth we sense the mysterious experience of a thousand years. Their contents date from the primeval ages of humanity, from the fabulous times that Vico tells about when man instinctively created fables and symbols in order to express himself. (20, p. 157)

Young children find pleasure in hearing and reciting nonsense rhymes. They enjoy humorous stories too if the comic situations, the amusing characters, and the play on words are not formal and artificial. Exaggeration is of course the main element in many "tall tales" which are generally popular with children. Humorous stories, although far more frequently found in children's literature today than they were a decade ago, are still too few in number to satisfy the demands for this kind of reading.

Children also delight in hearing and repeating nursery rhymes, jingles, and simple poems. The school and the home should offer young children many opportunities to hear and to read poetry. However, boys and girls should seldom be asked to learn and recite "memory gems." Instead, each child should be encouraged to remember the poems he likes best, and to write original verse. Particularly interesting, because it reveals children's own thoughts and

experience, is the growing library of poetry written by children. Like truly great poetry for children, these poems sometimes have a fanciful or imaginative quality which makes them appeal to almost all boys and girls.

Terman and Lima point out that the story preferences of boys and girls begin to diverge when children reach eight or nine years of age (37). Boys of nine tend to turn away from imaginative and fantastic stories and to show a greater interest in the "realistic" narrative. Girls, on the other hand, turn more frequently than boys to stories of home and school life. Terman and Lima state:

At twelve years, as we have seen, the reading interest approaches a climax of intensity. Children now show some interest in almost every field of literature. However, this is especially the age of hero worship, when biographies and historical narratives are preferred. Stories of both legendary and historical heroes enthrall the reader of twelve or thirteen years, who projects his own life into the thrilling lives of his heroes.

. . . The big field of boys' reading is still adventure stories and tales of athletic prowess, but the "juvenile" now gives place to the more exciting account of daring feats.

. . . Girls of twelve read mostly stories of home and school life. *Little Women* reaches its height of popularity, and stories of the kind that recount adventures of young girls in boarding school or college are much in favor. (37, pp. 38, 39)

After age twelve, curves portraying the amount of voluntary reading begin to show a decline. One type of reading experience is, however, unaffected. Reading the comics continues to be the favored reading pursuit. Moreover, both boys and girls read the same comic magazines and comic strips.

In the lists of books liked best by boys of twelve to sixteen years of age, stories of sports and contests appear near the top. Particularly well liked are accounts of heroes whose discoveries, inventions, or accomplishments reflect man's struggle to conquer or control natural forces. Such stories offer excellent opportunities for the teacher to stress worthy character traits and desirable patterns of behavior. Biography, history, and travel stories which attain popularity for boys of these ages also provide an avenue through which an understanding of people may be fostered.

Studies indicate that girls from twelve to sixteen years of age narrow their reading and give larger amounts of time to sentimental fiction. As Terman and Lima state:

Girls of fourteen show decided maturity of reading tastes. They may occasionally read a boy's adventure story, or a book written for young girls, but for the most part they prefer adult books. This is the age when girls, if allowed, will fairly steep themselves in sentimental fiction. They take their library reading from the fiction shelves and no longer go to the juvenile rooms. They often read as many as six or seven novels a week, and all of life takes on a tinge of romance. They live the lives of their heroines, and are likely to imbibe many false ideas of reality. (37, p. 43)

McCullough asked each of the members of a ninth grade class to write a letter to a friend recommending a book and telling just enough about the book to reveal its nature (25). Analysis of the compositions disclosed the interest factors as shown in Table XV.

TABLE XV
FREQUENCY OF MENTION OF INTEREST FACTORS
(25, p. 386)

<i>Boys</i>		<i>Girls</i>	
<i>Factor</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Factor</i>	<i>Number</i>
Adventure	20	Hardship	19
Heroism	14	Heroism	17
Hardship	9	Love	15
Fighting	6	Mystery	13
Mystery	4	Adventure	10
Cleverness	3	Daily life	8
Humor, love	2 each	Fighting	2
Daily life	1	Cleverness	1

In commenting on the results of this study, McCullough makes a succinct statement concerning the characteristics of a book that cause it to appeal strongly to high school pupils:

Let the hero achieve wonderful things in a setting of unusual adventure and in the face of some hardship, let him fight a good

fight, and most of these fourteen-year-old boys, if we can believe their testimonies, will read the book. Portray a hero or heroine surrounded by great odds and rewarded by love, encountering and solving mysteries which would baffle and terrify a less clever and courageous creature, and, if the shipwreck is remote and the rescuer of a suitable age and sex, most of these fourteen-year-old girl readers are captivated. (25, p. 386)

Pupils of ages fifteen and sixteen continue to read the kinds of materials formerly enjoyed, although they read somewhat less than previously. Specialization, too, begins to color the pattern of reading. Again quoting Terman and Lima:

After sixteen the reading interests of boys and girls are so matured that little difference from adult reading can be detected. Reading preferences are becoming more and more individual and specialized and generalizations no longer apply. (37, pp. 44-45)

CHILDREN AS CRITICS OF BOOKS

That the foregoing types of reading materials persist from decade to decade as favorites is shown by a number of investigations made throughout the past thirty years. Very recent studies by the author also reveal similar trends (40). However, with the great increase in the amount of children's literature in very recent years, children's choices today reveal some noteworthy changes. These changes are disclosed by some recent studies in which children's unrestricted choices of books have been reported and the recurring elements or themes within the books have been ascertained. These analyses offer clues concerning the types of books which, if they were made generally available, might lead to a greater interest in reading during the period when voluntary reading suffers a noticeable decline.

One of the most provocative of these studies was reported by Marie Rankin in 1944 (31). This investigator utilized the circulation records in eight public libraries to identify the contemporary books most frequently selected by boys and girls. Table XVI presents the thirty-five favored titles.

Table XVI also indicates the central theme of each book. Examination of these themes suggests the importance of topics such as adventure, mystery, sports, loyalty, and home and school life in contributing to the popularity of children's books. Adventure

TABLE XVI

TITLES OF CHILDREN'S CONTEMPORARY FICTION HAVING LARGE
CIRCULATION IN TWO OR MORE PUBLIC LIBRARIES

(31, p. 28)

<i>Author</i>	<i>Title</i>	<i>Publication date</i>	<i>Theme</i>	<i>No. libraries in which popular*</i>
Boylston	Sue Barton, Senior Nurse	1937	Career	8
Seredy	The Good Master	1935	Tomboyish escapades	7
Brink	Caddie Woodlawn	1935	Tomboyish escapades	8
O'Brien	Silver Chief to the Rescue	1937	Loyal dog hero	6
Fox	Mountain Girl	1932	Home, school, career	6
Pease	The Jinx Ship	1927	Sea adventure	6
O'Brien	Silver Chief, Dog of the North	1933	Loyal dog	6
Meador	Who Rides in the Dark?	1937	Historical mystery	5
Hunt	Susan, Beware!	1937	Tomboyish escapades	4
Hess	Buckaroo: A Story of Piñon Ranch	1931	Career (teaching)	4
Bugbee	Peggy Covers the News	1936	Career (news writing)	5
Boylston	Sue Barton, Student Nurse	1936	Career	5
Deming	Penny Marsh: Public Health Nurse	1938	Career	4
Boylston	Sue Barton, Visiting Nurse	1938	Career	5
Nordhoff and Hall	Falcons of France	1929	Aviation	4
Fayerweather	Anne Alive!	1933	Home life, mystery	3
Hall	College on Horseback	1933	School, career	3
Aspden	Mike of Company D	1939	Loyal dog	3
Means	A Candle in the Mist	1931	Career (teaching)	3
Barbour	The Fighting Guard	1938	School sports	3
Sperry	All Sail Set	1935	Sea adventure	3
Nordhoff	The Pearl Lagoon	1924	Sea adventure	3
Darling	Navarre of the North	1930	Loyal dog hero	2
Calahan	Back to Treasure Island	1935	Sea adventure	3
Seaman	Bitsy Finds the Clue	1934	Girls' mystery	2
Harper	Allison's Girl	1936	Girls' mystery	2
Robinson	Bright Island	1937	Home life, school	2
Seaman	The Disappearance of Anne Shaw	1938	Girls' mystery	2
Haines	Toss-Up	1932	School sports	2
Bugbee	Peggy Covers Washington	1937	Career	2
Meador	Red Horse Hill	1930	Historical adventure	2
Pease	The Wind in the Rigging	1935	Sea adventure	2
Bacon	Girl Wanted!	1936	Career (secretary)	2
Pease	The Ship Without a Crew	1934	Sea adventure	2
Bugbee	Peggy Covers London	1939	Career	2

* The twenty fiction titles with the largest average circulation per year in each library were considered the most popular in their respective libraries

at sea is the theme of six of these books, while school life appears as the central topic in five. Other familiar themes are also found in this list. However, one topic appears much more frequently than in other studies; namely, careers for girls. Concerning this theme, Rankin states:

Stories of Careers for Girls are found more often than any other theme in the books that are borrowed frequently enough to be called popular in these libraries. Eleven such titles are on the list of thirty-five books. The career of nursing is the subject of several highly popular books for girls. The careers of teaching and newswriting also furnish popular themes. The combined average yearly circulation of career books for girls is much greater than that of books dealing with any other theme. Three of the eleven books include secondary themes such as School Life, or Mystery, but the majority of them confine their attention to the problems and adventures usually present in the vocation which they are portraying. (31, p. 130)

It would be desirable for all persons concerned with the improvement of children's reading to note the foregoing themes and to examine the contents of the favored books. On the whole, these choices

. . . reflect an optimism and zeal for living that is naive and refreshing and that should be preserved in readers of this age. The authors in all of these books have used scenes, incidents, and characters that have proved to be attractive to many young people. All the characters are marked by physical vigor, personal fortitude, honest sentiment, and constancy to ideals, important qualities from the point of view of young adolescents. The authors have faced frankly the needs and desires of the youngsters whom they wished to please. (31, p. 133)

Although the foregoing study suggests considerations of significance in determining the popularity of books, it should be pointed out that the investigation describes the results of only one approach to the study of children's choices. As Rankin states:

It is probably now universally admitted by competent persons that children enter with more enthusiasm and with a higher degree of success into activities which, to them, are intrinsically interesting. However, few of these competent persons would be willing

to accept child interest as the sole criterion for determining all material provided for them. To accept the child's present interests and choices as the best single guiding principle does not rule out secondary bases of guidance. Competent adults will probably always be needed to suggest the better books among the interesting ones, and to help children sample books to find what is interesting. But it is to be hoped that the guidance trend will be increasingly in the direction of selecting for the children books which not only receive the sanction of those who are literary critics or the moral and intellectual guardians of youth, but books that are also interesting to the children who are to read them. (31, p. 140)

It will readily be granted that children need guidance, encouragement, and experience in choosing from a variety of materials in order to grow increasingly competent in making independent selections of individually appropriate books. When such conditions are provided, children's choices in books may be found to be superior to or different from those found by compiling the titles of books checked out of the public library.

A STUDY OF CHILDREN'S OWN STATEMENTS CONCERNING FAVORITE BOOKS

The following study, made by the author in collaboration with Ann Coomer and Dilla MacBean, describes another approach used in ascertaining best-liked books. (40)

In the kindergarten and in the first three grades, the children were asked to name the stories they liked best. Their homeroom teachers noted the pupils' responses and reported them as homeroom choices. A questionnaire filled in by the children in grades IV through VIII provided spaces for the boys and girls to list the five books they had read and most enjoyed during the year 1944-1945.

In the following lists, the best-liked books are presented according to frequency of mention. In the kindergarten list there are fourteen titles which were cited as room choices from two to seven times; in the primary grade list there are forty-six titles which were also given as room choices from three to nineteen times. There are fifty book titles in each of the two remaining lists; each title received citation by eighteen to one hundred ninety-five pupils.

BOOK FAVORITES OF THE KINDERGARTEN

REED (Ed.). *The Golden Book of Fairy Tales*
 FLACK. *Angus and the Ducks*
 BANNERMAN. *The Story of Little Black Sambo*
 GRUELLE. *Raggedy Ann Stories*
 LINDMAN. *Snipp, Snapp, Snurr Books*
 POTTER. *The Tale of Peter Rabbit*
 FLACK. *Ask Mr. Bear*
 FLACK-WIESE. *The Story about Ping*
 FRISKEY. *Seven Diving Ducks*
 HUBER *et al.* *I Know a Story*
 LOWREY. *The Poky Little Puppy*
 GRIMM-GRIMM. *Hansel and Gretel*, animated by Wehr
 BISHOP. *The Five Chinese Brothers*
 FLACK. *The Restless Robin*

BOOK FAVORITES OF THE PRIMARY GRADES I-III

DISNEY-PURNELL version of *Bambi*
 BANNERMAN. *The Story of Little Black Sambo*
 MCCLOSKEY. *Make Way for Ducklings*
 LANG (Ed.). *Cinderella*
 DISNEY-BARUCH version of *Pinocchio*
 ANDERSON. *Billy and Blaze*
 AUSTIN. *Peter Churchmouse*
 GAG. *Snippy and Snappy*
 PIPER. *The Little Engine That Could*
 BARNETT-BARNETT. *They Hunted High and Low*
 DISNEY-BRUMBAUGH. *Donald Duck and His Nephews*
 HUBER *et al.* *It Happened One Day*
 GRIMM-GRIMM. *Grimms' Fairy Tales*
 BROWN. *Polite Penguin*
 GRUELLE. *Eddie Elephant*
 BISHOP. *The Five Chinese Brothers*
 (No edition given) *Fairy Tales*
 DISNEY-PALMER. *Mickey Never Fails*
 WEHR, animated edition of *Little Red Riding Hood*
 BROOKS. *To and Again*
 CAMERON. *The Three Bears*
 HUBER *et al.* *I Know a Story*
 WASHBURN. *Little Elephant Books*
 FRISKEY. *Wings Over the Woodshed*
 DISNEY-EMERSON. *School Days in Disneyville*
 GARIS. *Uncle Wiggily Books*

BEIM-BEIM. *Lucky Pierre*
 POTTER. *The Tale of Peter Rabbit*
 WEHR, animated edition of *Puss in Boots*
 WHITEFORD-WHITEFORD. *How Sandy Squirrel Got His Tail*
 TRAVERS. *Mary Poppins Books*
 FRISKEY. *Scuttlebutt Goes to War*
 WELLS. *Peppi the Duck*
 PAYNE. *Katy No-Pocket*
 HOPE. *The Bobbsey Twins*
 MCCLOSKEY. *Homer Price*
 CRAIK. *The Little Lamé Prince*
 ANDERSEN. *Andersen's Fairy Tales*
 FERRIS. "*Watch Me," Said the Jeep*
 FLACK-WIESE. *The Story about Ping*
 FRISKEY. *Seven Diving Ducks*
 LEAF. *The Story of Ferdinand*
 MOLNÁR. *The Blue-Eyed Lady*
 CREDLE. *Down Down the Mountain*
 ——. *Little Jeemes Henry*
 EVERS-EVERS. *Crybaby Calf*

BOOK FAVORITES OF THE INTERMEDIATE GRADES IV-VI

KNIGHT. *Lassie Come-Home*
 ATWATER-ATWATER. *Mr. Popper's Penguins*
 SEWELL. *Black Beauty*
 CLEMENS. *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer*
 (No edition given) *Fairy Tales*
 RAINS. *Lazy Liza Lizard*
 MCCLOSKEY. *Homer Price*
 GRIMM-GRIMM. *Grimms' Fairy Tales*
 ESTES. *Moffat Books*
 BROOKS. *Freddy the Detective*
 GEISEL. *The 500 Hats of Bartholomew Cubbins*
 O'BRIEN. *Silver Chief, Dog of the North*
 LOFTING. *Dr. Dolittle Books*
 LANE (Ed.). *Arabian Nights' Entertainments*
 SPYRI. *Heidi*
 DISNEY-BARUCH version of *Pinocchio*
 O'HARA, pseud. *My Friend Flicka*
 FLACK. *Walter, the Lazy Mouse*
 TRAVERS. *Mary Poppins Books*
 PYLE. *Some Merry Adventures of Robin Hood*
 GRAMATKY. *Little Toot*
 MCSWIGAN. *Snow Treasure*

WOLO, pseud. *Amanda*
 CLEMENS. *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*
 SALTEN. *Bambi*
 SEREDY. *The Good Master*
 BONTEMPS-CONROY. *The Fast Sooner Hound*
 DISNEY. *The Life of Donald Duck*
 JONES. *Twig*
 ANDERSON. *Blaze and the Gypsies*
 DEFOE. *Robinson Crusoe*
 WELLS. *Peppi the Duck*
 DISNEY. *Mickey Mouse Movie Stories*
 BISHOP. *The Five Chinese Brothers*
 CARROLL, pseud. *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*
 BRINK. *Caddie Woodlawn*
 CRAIK. *The Little Lame Prince*
 LANG (Ed.). *Cinderella*
 WHITE. *Mouseknees*
 LINDMAN. *Snipp, Snapp, Snurr Books*
 DISNEY-PURNELL version of *Bambi*
 LATTIMORE. *Little Pear*
 Petersham Products Books
 DISNEY-AYER. *Donald Duck and His Friends*
 D'AULAIRE-D'AULAIRE. *Abraham Lincoln*
 ENRIGHT. *The Saturdays*
 ESTES. *The Hundred Dresses*
 HENRY. *The Little Fellow*
 KALER. *Toby Tyler*
 THURBER. *Many Moons*

BOOK FAVORITES OF THE UPPER GRADES VII-VIII

KNIGHT. *Lassie Come-Home*
 ESTES. *Moffat Books*
 BOYLSTON. *Sue Barton Books*
 TUNIS. *Keystone Kids*
 O'BRIEN. *Silver Chief, Dog of the North*
 TERHUNE. *Lad: A Dog*
 TUNIS. *All-American*
 BRINK. *Caddie Woodlawn*
 SPERRY. *Call It Courage*
 STEVENSON. *Treasure Island*
 SEWELL. *Black Beauty*
 TUNIS. *The Kid from Tomkinsville*
 FORBES. *Johnny Tremain*
 CLEMENS. *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer*

SEREDY. *The Good Master*
 BEALS. *Davy Crockett*
 O'HARA, pseud. *My Friend Flicka*
 TUNIS. *Champion's Choice*
 ——. *Yea! Wildcats!*
 All the Alcott Books
 JONES. *Twig*
 MEADER. *Shadow in the Pines*
 TUNIS. *World Series*
 MEADER. *The Sea Snake*
 SPYRI. *Heidi*
 GRIMM-GRIMM. *Grimms' Fairy Tales*
 SEREDY. *A Tree for Peter*
 ALCOTT. *Little Women*
 PYLE. *Some Merry Adventures of Robin Hood*
 BURNETT. *The Secret Garden*
 LANE (Ed.). *Arabian Nights' Entertainments*
 DEFOE. *Robinson Crusoe*
 SEYMOUR. *On the Edge of the Fjord*
 WORTH. *They Loved To Laugh*
 BAKER. *Mystery at Four Chimneys*
 DAVIS. *Stand Fast and Reply*
 SALTEN. *Bambi*
 SMITH. *A Tree Grows in Brooklyn*
 ATWATER-ATWATER. *Mr. Popper's Penguins*
 WHITE. *They Were Expendable*
 DISNEY-PALMER. *Mickey Never Fails*
 DISNEY version of *Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs*
 MCSWIGAN. *Snow Treasure*
 SEAMAN. *The Boarded-Up House*
 TUNIS. *Rookie of the Year*
 BEALS. *Buffalo Bill*
 BUGBEE. *Peggy Covers the News*
 DISNEY-BARUCH version of *Pinocchio*
 (No edition given) *Fairy Tales*
 MCCLOSKEY. *Homer Price*

COMPARISON OF CHILDREN'S BOOK FAVORITES WITH STANDARD BIBLIOGRAPHIES

In examining the foregoing lists one should bear in mind that the titles are the unrestricted choices of children who regularly attend movies, listen to the radio, and read comic books and strips during their leisure time. Indeed, this bibliography should be considered

with the respect due books that have withstood the competition and strong appeal of other popular activities. (40)

There were 4343 different titles mentioned, ranging in quality from the *Bobbsey Twins* and *Dave Dawson* series to established classics and to contemporary books of excellence such as some of the Caldecott and the Newbery Awards.*

On the whole, the choices conform somewhat closely to adult standards as to grade level and quality represented in the *Children's Catalog* published by the H. W. Wilson Company (39); *A Basic Book Collection for Elementary Grades*, American Library Association (3); *An Aid to Book Selection for Elementary School Libraries*, Illinois State Library (8); and *500 Books for Children*, Nora E. Beust (10). The *Children's Catalog* gives an approximate grade rating to each title included, in recognition of the fact that some indication of the relative difficulty of books is desirable. The grading in the *Children's Catalog* has been carefully checked with ratings in *The Right Book for the Right Child* (5), the *Graded List of Books for Children* (4), and several excellent state and city lists for school libraries. It is pointed out that grading must never be taken too seriously.

Since most kindergarten children cannot read, the kindergarten choices represent stories that have been told to these pupils. In some instances, the child may have heard the story from a phonograph recording, or he may have "read" the book by deriving meaning from illustrations. Young children, in naming favorite stories, do not always indicate the way in which they have become acquainted with the tale. This tendency is occasionally found among older children also. Boys and girls who saw the moving picture adaptation of *Lassie Come-Home* sometimes felt as much ownership of the story as did those who read it. Some pupils, after seeing the movie, turned to the book to capture again the thrills that attended the cinema experience. To them the story was of paramount importance; the means of obtaining it, secondary. Other children who named books associated with movies they had seen gave their responses

* The Caldecott Medal is awarded by the children's librarians of America to the illustrator of each year's "most distinguished picture book for children." The medal was established in 1938. The John Newbery Medal is awarded by the same group to the author of each year's "most distinguished contribution to American literature for children." This medal was established in 1922.

under similar motivation. However, precaution was taken in the upper grades by encouraging the children to report only the books they had read.

The kindergarten list is undoubtedly largely a selection of good books that have been read aloud to these children. It is of interest that all the titles are placed in grades I-IV in one or more of the many approved standard lists compiled by librarians, educators, and publishers. The titles selected by the older pupils not only appear in approved lists, but also follow rather closely the grade placements assigned to them by the makers of such lists. Thus, eighty-seven per cent of the primary choices agree with grade placements, as do about ninety per cent of the books in the middle and upper grade lists.

It will be noted that the primary list contains some titles which ordinarily appear in intermediate grade listings; for example, *Homer Price*, *To and Again*, and *The Little Lane Prince*. Similarly, in grades IV to VI, a few children report that they enjoy books such as *My Friend Flicka*, which the standard bibliographies assign to high school levels. And in the upper grades (VII-VIII) some boys and girls report that they enjoy books such as *A Tree Grows in Brooklyn* and *They Were Expendable*, books which generally appeal to somewhat older pupils. However, some pupils in the intermediate grades read books which appear in lists for the primary grades; e.g., *The Life of Donald Duck* and *Little Toot*. It is interesting to observe too that the largest number of deviations from standard grade placements come from the citation of books of intermediate difficulty by older pupils.

In the *Children's Catalog* (39), books assigned a single asterisk are recommended for first purchase in building a new library; these books "have been found to be most generally useful in libraries" and to have "a wide appeal for children." Those books to which a double asterisk is assigned are the books of "lasting merit which ought to be made available to all children." In this survey, forty-two per cent of the kindergarten titles are starred in the *Children's Catalog* and twenty-one and four tenths per cent are double starred; in the primary choices, five per cent are starred and nineteen and one half per cent are double starred; while the upper grade list contains fifty-four per cent starred and thirty-four per cent double starred.

The greatest departure from adult standards in the primary list may be accounted for by the presence of Disney titles; the Gruelle books; the Wehr animated editions of the classics; and books by Washburne, Garis, Friskey, Piper, and the Whitefords — all of which do not appear in the standard bibliographies.

CHARACTERISTICS OF CHILDREN'S BOOK CHOICES

In the kindergarten and primary lists, stories about animals predominate (40). Tales of this kind give a poignant thrill to many children. Whether wild or tame, real or fanciful, these creatures stir the feelings and imaginations of boys and girls. A sense of intimacy and identification leads children to seek a succession of stories about a well-loved animal character. Such favorites are Donald Duck and Mickey Mouse, whose fortunes the children pursue in books, in the movies, over the radio, and in comic strips.

Second in popularity in the kindergarten and primary grades are fairy tales. However, fairy tales in general (no special collections named) received highest ranking in the intermediate grades, and dropped to a low level in grades VII and VIII.

Although some teachers and librarians have discouraged the reading of the *Bobbsey Twins* series, these books appear again and again in the lists of books chosen by children. One girl gave this reason for liking them: "The twins do the things real children do."

The popularity of a number of books cited by kindergarten or primary grade children may be attributed in part to the humorous character of the story or illustrations. *The Story of Little Black Sambo*, *The Five Chinese Brothers*, *Donald Duck and His Nephews*, *Peter Churchmouse*, *Make Way for Ducklings*, *Snippy and Snappy*, and *Peppi the Duck* usually bring chuckles and laughter from primary children.

These books of fun and humor, illustrated with vivid pictures, have sometimes been chosen by educators as "substitutes for the comics"; that is, they are presented to children whose reading of the comics seems excessive. From these "substitutes," or "bridges," adults have endeavored to lead the child to books of more solid substance. In their lists of favorite books, children themselves have included many of these "bridge" books. It is the responsibility of discerning parents, teachers, and librarians to lead young readers

from these bridgeheads to the vast fields of literature where they can begin exciting and profitable explorations that may continue throughout their lives.

A perusal of the favorite titles of the intermediate grades (IV-VI) reveals the gradual maturing of the tastes of these boys and girls. *Donald Duck* and *Mickey Mouse* continue to be well liked, but they decline in rank and give way to *Lassie Come-Home*, *Mr. Popper's Penguins*, *Black Beauty*, and *Silver Chief, Dog of the North*. Similar to the primary grade children, intermediate grade pupils also like humor and fun in their reading, as attested by choices such as the *Mary Poppins* books, *Freddy the Detective*, *The 500 Hats of Bartholomew Cubbins*, and *The Fast Sooner Hound*. Adventure also is an element which accounts in part for the popularity of books such as *Some Merry Adventures of Robin Hood* and *Robinson Crusoe*. Stories of real boys, such as *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer*, *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*, and the more modern *Homer Price* and *Rufus M.*, appeal strongly to boys. There is also an interest shown in children of other lands, as indicated by the popularity of *Heidi*, *The Good Master*, and *Snow Treasure*.

Evidence of still greater maturity appears in the popular choices of pupils in grades VII and VIII (40). Yet the upper grade list is definitely weighted with books of action and adventure. It would have been gratifying to have found more books such as Means' *Shuttered Windows* and *Tangled Waters*, Felsen's *Struggle Is Our Brother*, and Allee's *Susanna and Tristram*, in which social conditions are portrayed. However, boys and girls appear to be rather competent judges of books, and their choices are on the whole commendable. They do reject some books that adults endorse; and they do include some that some adults disapprove. As Paul Hazard states:

Children reject the books that do not treat them as equals and which call them "dear little readers"; the books which do not respond to their own nature, which do not attract their eye through pictures, or their spirit by liveliness; books which teach them only what they can learn at school, books which put them to sleep but not to dream. (20, pp. 50-51)

Noteworthy in this study is the frequency with which the books given Newbery and Caldecott Awards are cited. Ten of the twenty-

four Newbery and five of the eight Caldecott Award books are found in these lists.

The merit of the children's choices is suggested by another comparison. Of the forty-nine titles considered by one hundred fifty children's and school librarians to be most widely used in public and school libraries of all books published in 1939-1943 (2), forty-two were found among the children's choices.

It is obvious that many titles persist generation after generation as favorites. Thus twenty-seven of the one hundred fourteen "best-loved American juvenile books" (1827-1926) mentioned in Jacob Blanck's anthology (11) appear as favorites in the listings. A few of these old-time favorites chosen by children participating in this investigation are: *Little Women*, *An Old-Fashioned Girl*, *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer*, *Toby Tyler*, *Some Merry Adventures of Robin Hood*, and *The Story of Dr. Dolittle*.

STATUS OF POETRY IN CHILDREN'S BOOK SELECTIONS

It is a matter of regret that poetry finds so little representation in this survey (40). Only one book of poetry, *Little Brown Baby*, received enough votes to appear in the composite listing of one hundred favorites. The bulk of votes for this book came from a large Negro school in Chicago. It is of interest that in Melcher's recent collection of "representative children's books" only one book of poetry, Benét's *A Book of Americans*, is included (26). And with the exception of Cox's *The Brownies*, not a single volume of poetry is found in Blanck's anthology of best-loved American juveniles. He contends that: "Poetry, save for the small doses crammed into the schoolboy, seems to hold no real place in the reading child's world. Publishers have issued, and continue to publish, inviting collections of the individual poets and specialized anthologies, but children do not often of their own volition turn to poetry" (11, Preface). In refutation of this statement, Betzner and Moore (9) declare that this conclusion may be true of the "reading-child" but not of the "listening-child," for poetry makes its greatest appeal to the ear. And surveys such as the one made of the book favorites of publishers' children suggest that even very young children may find great pleasure in listening to poems (27). Fortunate is the child who has had the heritage of an early acquaintance with poetry; his life is indeed

richer for the experience. Surely the lack of poetry in the children's lists constitutes a challenge to all persons who believe that a child becomes a better, happier person by having his sensitivities awakened through poetry. Undoubtedly the encouragement of boys and girls to write their own verse will help develop a feeling for poetry and will bring about a greater appreciation of poets and their work. Similarly, the present-day tendency to include poetry in superior textbooks may tend to awaken the child's interest in this type of reading.

THE TEACHER'S RESPONSIBILITY FOR KNOWING CHILDREN'S BOOKS

The foregoing discussion makes clear the fact that the effective teacher must be thoroughly acquainted with children's literature — old and new.

How is the teacher to acquire this knowledge? What are the most effective ways to become acquainted with children's books? What are some avenues through which she may be helped to keep in touch with new publications?

Some teachers find it helpful to enroll in courses in children's literature, and many others are gaining new appreciations from the excellent treatises about children's literature prepared by authors who know children and books (14, 15, 16, 17). Anthologies aid, too, especially when library facilities are meager. However, the most profitable way to study children's literature is to become acquainted, at firsthand, with the books themselves.

Bookshops, school and public circulating libraries, exhibits, and book services of publishing companies offer opportunities for the teacher to examine a varied assortment of printed materials for children. Many teachers have developed the habit of visiting bookshops and libraries regularly. As they come into contact with new materials, they find it useful to keep a record of the books or selections examined so that they can readily locate reading matter when different needs arise.* A convenient way to record information is to use three inch by five inch bibliography cards. These cards can be assembled and filed under appropriate topical headings.

* Dr. Ethel S. Hoeber worked with the author on the development of forms for recording and evaluating children's literature.

One teacher, after studying Lenrow's *Reader's Guide to Prose Fiction* (24), devised a fourfold classification for reading materials:

- Part I. Books or selections which contribute to the child's needs for *entertainment and escape* — stories of adventure, fantasy, and humor
- Part II. Books or selections which contribute to his need for understanding his own immediate *personal environment* — selections about early childhood, later childhood, and family life
- Part III. Books or selections which contribute to his need for understanding his *social environment* — selections about pioneer, farm, village, or urban life; books about races and various social groups; books about transportation, communication, and other social forces
- Part IV. Books which relate to topics of significance in various *subject fields* such as science or social studies

The following form was then employed to record the data on each book or selection for the teacher's own reference file.

Brink, Carol Ryrie (Mrs.) *Caddie Woodlawn*
New York: Macmillan Co., 1935. Pp. 270. Price \$2.00
Illustrated in black and white by Kate Seredy.

Source: Public Library, Children's Room. Call number JB
University Library. Call number PZ7.B78Cad

Grade Level: 6-8 (ages 10-14)

Content: Story of frontier life in Wisconsin in the 1860's with Caddie, age 11, and her two brothers. Based upon reminiscences of the author's grandmother.

Evaluation: Excellent picture of the times; entertaining and filled with action. Awarded Newbery Medal, 1936.

Possible Uses:

- (1) For any child, in connection with social studies units — to broaden understanding of pioneer life.
- (2) For girls ages 10-14 who may be rebellious at growing up — to help them change their concept of what it means to be a lady, and to make adjustments with ease and understanding.

JUDGING AND SELECTING BOOKS

The teacher will, of course, evaluate each selection or book examined, and choose only those which seem to be most serviceable in meeting the needs of boys and girls. What standards should be used in judging old books? What criteria can be employed in evaluating new books?

Primary consideration should be given, of course, to children's interests and needs. As Arbuthnot indicates, the teacher should use books to promote the growth of boys and girls:

As we evaluate the books, old ones and recent ones, we shall keep the child's basic needs and interests in mind and try to determine to what extent books written for him have met or ignored them. In short, we shall be considering not only children's books, but children faced with the multiple tasks of growing up. (6, p.30)

Published studies of children's interests and preferences afford significant data upon which selection should depend. These studies provide the teacher with a general guide in choosing books in which children of a given age or grade group will probably be interested. Such studies are especially helpful to the teacher in making tentative plans preliminary to the opening of school. However, this knowledge should never be thought of as a substitute for careful consideration of the particular interests and needs of each child. Both approaches should be judiciously combined to determine the most suitable choices for individuals and for groups.

The range of ability within each class is another consideration of importance in selecting books. The results of standard tests offer a crude indication of the pupils' ability to read certain types of materials. Books should be provided of sufficiently varied difficulty to satisfy and challenge the full range of ability within every class. There should be books for the slowest reader and for the child of highest ability. In addition, reading matter should be made available for every child between the two extremes. Moreover, as children change and develop, books of increasing difficulty should be provided in order that steady progress will be made.

The thoughtful teacher accepts or rejects reading materials in the light of two general standards: Does the reading matter fit the needs

and abilities of the individual or the group with whom it is to be used? Will it lead the group or the pupil to develop greater ability, deeper understanding, and a higher level of appreciation (34, 35)? In their efforts to evaluate reading material, teachers often find criteria such as the following of value.

CHECK LIST FOR EVALUATING CHILDREN'S BOOKS

(Questions apply to single selections also)

A. Difficulty

1. Can the group (or child) with whom the selection is to be used read it with reasonable ease?
2. Are the concepts within their comprehension?

B. Content

1. Is the content in keeping with the interests or needs of the class?
 - a. Will the children really enjoy the book?
 - b. Will it contribute understandings which will enable them to make needed personal and social adjustments?
2. Will it extend the range, the depth, and the quality of their understanding and experience?
 - a. Will it lead them to broader and deeper appreciation of people, places, times, nature, science, and so forth?
 - b. Will it lead to higher ideals? Are the heroes and heroines seeking worthy ideals?
3. If the book is a storybook, will it give the child a true picture of life? Will it lead him to seek sincerity and truth in the books he reads?
 - a. Do the characters talk and behave as real people?
 - b. Could the story actually happen? Are the obstacles to be overcome real obstacles? Do the characters and situations interact to produce the events that happen, or does the author force certain outcomes?

C. Quality of presentation

1. Is the book well written?
 - a. Is it free from careless, slipshod, crude English?
 - b. Does it have simplicity, beauty, or an imaginative quality?

2. Does it have organic and artistic unity?
 - a. If factual information is contained in the book is it direct and concrete, or are the facts lost in the conversation and activities of characters?
 - b. If stories are offered, do they move directly toward a good point or climax?

D. Physical make-up

1. Are the type face and the size of type suitable for the age level at which the book is to be used?
2. Is the binding durable and attractive?
3. Are illustrations simple, artistic, suited to the content, and meaningful to children?

SECURING MATERIALS FOR WIDE READING

In order to provide for steady growth, the school should make available books and periodicals on many topics. Many schools now have a central library, and each classroom has a limited number of books on its own permanent shelf. In these schools, books from the school library are also checked out to classroom libraries for limited periods of time.

The services of community agencies are sometimes sought by schools that have meager funds for the purchase of books. The public library is also utilized to the maximum degree. From some libraries it is possible to withdraw forty or fifty books at one time for classroom use. In some rural communities, circulating libraries bring books to the classroom. Book shops and publishing houses sometimes lend exhibits or examination copies so that schools may make selections of new books for purchase. Such book displays, arranged for different events or holidays, frequently stimulate the purchase of books and create interest in reading.

Parent-teacher associations and other groups also enable some schools and teachers to obtain money needed to buy books. In addition, money is sometimes raised directly, through school entertainments or plays, candy sales, collection and sale of paper, and so forth. Parents are encouraged to foster reading by securing good books for home reading. Some teachers provide parents with book lists and suggest titles of books that they consider appropriate as

gifts for particular children. Children, too, learn to share their own books with their classmates. Through many agencies and activities, a fine collection of books and magazines may be assembled which will provide children with the essential materials for developing reading skills and appreciations.

STIMULATING INTEREST AND APPRECIATION

“How can I help John to develop an interest in wide reading when he apparently has no special interests on which to build? What can I offer Sylvia, who seems to read nothing voluntarily but comic magazines? How can I lead all my pupils to read better books? How can I help them develop an appreciation of poetry?”

These questions can best be answered by making sure that each child has many happy, satisfying associations with various kinds of printed materials. And the way to guarantee satisfaction in reading is to bring him into contact with “the right book at the right time.” For any child, the right book is one of appropriate difficulty in which the subject matter satisfies a strong interest. The right time is the moment when the child’s experiences have been such that he can enter into the mood of a selection or story, the time when he can readily appreciate the fact that the printed material really answers his questions and extends his experience.

A step in helping each child find the right book at the right time involves surrounding children with a variety of easy, interesting, attractive reading materials. Many classrooms have an inviting book corner in which children can select books freely. Under such circumstances, children will often choose wisely. Some children who have little desire to read may be stimulated to do so when they observe the pleasure their classmates find in reading, or when they become interested in unusually attractive and appealing books which are immediately available to them on the book tables. Most children will need guidance in using their freedom effectively, but they should be encouraged to become independent in choosing and evaluating books.

Many classroom teachers with the aid of their pupils have constructed inexpensive but attractive bookcases, chairs, and round tables to use in the book corner. These items, with the addition of plants, a few interesting objects, and a variety of books attractively

arranged, make the library corner an inviting spot. Books on topics of special interest to the group may be displayed from time to time. For example, books about Mexico and pictures and handwork depicting Mexican life will be assembled when Mexico is a topic of study or interest. These displays arranged at the right time make the corner irresistible. Children are drawn to this spot, and it seems to exercise a magical influence upon them. For example, one aggressive boy who had never read a book voluntarily was attracted to an aviation exhibit and became engrossed in reading about airplanes. As his skill and interest in reading grew, his behavior improved. Such incidents reveal the fact that most children have interests which can be satisfied through reading. When children make this discovery, they are richly rewarded.

*THE INFLUENCE OF THE HOME ON
CHILDREN'S ATTITUDES TOWARD READING AND BOOKS*

Most teachers have come to appreciate the fact that maximum educational results are seldom achieved in the school unless there is full cooperation with the home. Accordingly, effort is being put forth to bring about the participation and the support of informed parents in fostering a balanced reading program.

It is apparent that the reading problem does not suddenly emerge when the child starts to school. Many important forces in shaping the attitude of the child toward reading and in determining his later success have already been in operation for several years. In the home he has encountered books and other reading materials. He may have been fortunate in having parents who enjoyed reading; and he may have observed how other members of his family turned to books for information or pleasure. He may have had opportunities to examine picture books and to listen to stories. Under such circumstances a child's curiosity is whetted concerning the meaning and the charm inherent in the black symbols appearing in books. Such a boy or girl, who discovers early in life that books can be a never ending source of information and pleasure, seldom has difficulty in "learning to read"; he accepts books as a necessary part of everyday living and learns to read as naturally as he learns to talk or walk.

In homes where reading material is abundant one finds, even

among very young children, strong preferences for certain stories. Some like animated books; others plead to hear their favorite nursery tales again and again; while still others are attracted by stories of animals or pets. Nearly all children enjoy books that contain descriptions related to their own everyday experiences. Thus one child, living near a bridle path, wished to hear stories about horses; another, after observing a steam shovel at work, wanted to examine books and pictures on this subject. Many children of four who are fond of playing with trains insist on listening to *The Railroad A B C* so many times that they can say it by heart. One very bright three-year-old child kept a red string in the book *Farm and City* to indicate the place where the picture of a fire engine could be found, for, according to his parents, fire engines were his "greatest interest in life." (27)

Scientific workers have stressed the significance of the preschool years in affecting the attitudes and development of the child in school, and many modern parents who follow research findings are becoming increasingly sensitive to their responsibilities as guides and guardians of young children. The modern school, too, recognizes its obligation to take into account the child's early experiences in planning initial instruction in reading. Sometimes the school discovers a rich background on which to build; however, it frequently finds that its primary task is to supply experiences and opportunities which should have been the child's natural heritage in a good home. In either case, the modern teacher knows that she must start with the child on his level and cooperate with the home to bring about his maximum development.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF TEACHERS, PARENTS, AND LIBRARIANS IN A BALANCED READING PROGRAM

The efforts to provide good reading materials in abundance and upon suitable levels is a responsibility of the parents, the teacher, and the school librarian. Many elementary schools have established central libraries within their own buildings where children can read for pleasure and information, and from which they can take books to read at home.

To facilitate the best use of this central collection of books, increasing numbers of elementary schools are employing a full-time

librarian, trained in library science and in child psychology. Such a person, enthusiastic and well qualified, can make the library one of the most inviting spots in the building (17). Here a lasting love for books can develop in every child — or unfortunately the reverse can be true also, if the librarian conceives her job as one of seeing that each child reads books strictly on a required grade level and makes only formal reading reports.

In selecting books the trained librarian works with the teacher. Both become familiar with the help offered by the *Children's Catalog* (39), the American Library Association *Booklist* (1), the *Horn Book Magazine* (22), and the excellent reviews in periodicals such as *Childhood Education* (7), *Elementary English* (29), *Story Parade* (36), and *Child Life* (12). The librarian's interest in child development will enable her to cooperate with teachers in gaining an understanding of each child; she will then endeavor to provide varied reading materials to satisfy the individual needs of the boys and girls. In locating stories of particular suitability for classes or individuals, she will avail herself of the subject indexes and guides such as those developed by the American Library Association. (32, 33)

The librarian will also become acquainted with the literature that book companies are publishing at low cost for use in every grade from the kindergarten to the high school. The *Little Wonder Books* (28) and the Follett (18), the E. M. Hale (19), the Rand McNally (30), and the Whitman (38) publications are examples.

Other companies, too, are publishing series of books dealing with current topics, such as the *New World Neighbors* series (21). Through these books the child is provided with stories of literary excellence and, at the same time, with subject matter that leads to more effective reading in the social studies program. The efficient school librarian will aid teachers and pupils in selecting books that relate to centers of interest in the various subject fields. To offer additional motivation and relevant extension of experience the librarian will make books accessible that are rich in the elements of humor, excitement, adventure, or surprise.

The school librarian will send to each classroom assortments of books altered and augmented as the interests and needs of the children expand and change. She will also instruct teachers and pupils in the use of library aids, reference books, catalogs, indexes, and

bibliographies. She will be informed as to the availability of visual and auditory aids for school use. She may encourage creative writing by the pupils themselves (17). Book reviews by the children, informally voiced or written, will do much to advertise books. In addition, a display in the school library of children's art work depicting scenes and characters from their favorite stories will encourage reading.

The school library will make provision for many timid children to prove themselves necessary members of various groups — for the possibilities of helping in the library are numerous. There are book jackets to be displayed, magazine racks to be kept in order, volumes to be repaired, and books to be arranged on the shelves. Such activities often interest poor readers or indifferent boys and girls. In handling books, apparently only to help the librarian, some children may for the first time in their lives develop an interest in books that will lead to extensive voluntary reading.

The trained librarian will understand that the reading patterns of any two children will be as different as are the personalities of the two youngsters. "But whether children are predestined bookworms, or whether they are to find their chief delight in occupations that involve physical activity, there is joy in books for all of them, though some may need more help than others in finding it." (15, p. 11)

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

The task of becoming acquainted with children's literature — old and new — may seem overwhelming to some teachers who have depended in the past almost entirely upon the use of a single textbook for instruction in reading. However, most modern teachers recognize the need for a broader approach and for a balanced program in reading. In such a program, children's literature has an important place.

A balanced reading program, by offering wide reading experience from a variety of carefully chosen materials, will care for individual differences. In this chapter, some practical ways by which the teacher can become acquainted with children's literature have been suggested. Procedures have been described, too, through which the teacher may become skilled in evaluating stories and books and in choosing "the right book for the right child."

The studies of children's choices reported in this chapter throw light on the child's own appraisal of books. Such systematic surveys, it has been shown, will help not only in estimating the success of library and reading programs but also in providing an important source from which books of genuine and lasting appeal to boys and girls may be selected. These studies demonstrate that the collective judgment of boys and girls affords a fair measure of the worth of many books. For children reject or turn away from the shoddy or unappealing story and give their approval generally to books of merit. As Paul Hazard states:

Children defend themselves, I tell you. They manifest at first a degree of inertia that resists the liveliest attacks; finally they take the offensive and expel their false friends from a domain in which they wish to remain the rulers. Nothing is done to create a common opinion among them and yet that opinion exists. They would be wholly incapable of defining the faults that displease them; but they cannot be made to believe that a book which displeases them *should* please them in spite of themselves. Whatever their differences may be as to age, sex, or social position, they detest with common accord disguised sermons, hypocritical lessons, irreproachable little boys and girls who behave with more docility than their dolls. It is as though they sensed obscurely the vanity and danger of exterior constraints, as though they brought into the world with them a spontaneous hatred of the insincere and the false. The adults insist, the children pretend to yield and do not yield. We overpower them; they rise up again. Thus does the struggle continue, in which the weaker will triumph. (20, p. 49)

Although the significance and value of the child's reactions to books have been stressed, the author of this book recognizes fully the importance of cooperative efforts on the part of teachers, parents, and librarians in guiding and in improving the reading patterns of children and young people. Better reading habits will result when these adults pool their resources in a cooperative effort to understand each child and to guide him sympathetically to the realization of the inexhaustible wealth of information and enjoyment to be found in good books.

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Learning to Read — A Developmental Process

AT times it is convenient to think of stages of development in reading, but a formulation of such stages must be viewed as being somewhat arbitrary since individual differences within every group result in expression on several levels. There are, nevertheless, certain characteristic acquisitions of the early, the middle, and the more advanced levels which deserve emphasis. For example, speed of silent reading usually improves most rapidly during the early period, and progress continues at a slower rate during the middle and later periods. Of course, some children make their most rapid gains in rate of silent reading during the middle period, while others do so at a later time. Other acquisitions related to efficient silent reading are similarly characterized as to general trends and individual deviation.

STAGES IN THE GROWTH OF READING SKILLS

The following stages in the development of the reading process may be designated: (1) the period in which the child succeeds in his first oral and silent reading experiences; (2) the period of rapid progress in the development of habits, skills, and attitudes related to efficient silent reading; and (3) the period in which experience is greatly extended and habits and tastes are refined through reading. (14)

FIRST ORAL AND SILENT READING EXPERIENCES

The special significance of readiness has already been treated in Chapter III, and criteria for appraising this condition have been set

forth. The first period in the acquisition of oral and silent reading skills is likewise of significance. The limit of this period cannot easily be set, but the period may be regarded as completed when the child enjoys the reading of simple passages of first readers and has acquired an interest in reading independently. Some children will have completed this stage by the end of the first grade, while others may not have attained the required skills until they are in the second grade, or even a higher grade. However, it seems that most children will learn to read during their first year in school if superior instructional materials are used and appropriate individual guidance is offered.

In many schools, the first period really starts when the child is introduced to reading from experience charts and pre-primers. Somewhat longer and more difficult materials are presented in primers. Upon completion of materials of the primer level, the pupil is offered his first reader. To assure an orderly mastery of the skills, the textbook program provides a number of practice books. Other accessories such as flash cards or filmstrips are also offered.

Some teachers prefer to utilize the textbook program to a limited extent and to provide a reading program in which the reading experience is more closely related to the children's activities and in which more abundant use of experience charts and trade books occurs. In such an approach, practice books are sometimes sparingly used. Whatever the approach may be, the first grade teacher aims to help every boy and girl:

- Develop readiness for reading
- Acquire a basic stock of sight words
- Broaden experience through activities and discussions
- Enjoy reading experiences from varied sources on diversified topics
- Make steady individual progress in the acquisition of fundamental habits and skills

Proper use of basal reading materials would appear to help most teachers coordinate and unify all effort. Moreover, this approach affords a measure of security for the teacher and for parents in the knowledge that systematic instruction is being offered every boy and girl.

WORD STUDY DURING THE BEGINNING STAGE

Whether a child is introduced to reading through the use of film-strips, experience charts, textbooks, or other forms of reading materials, he should have opportunities to sense the thought unit of which each word is a part. In the beginning the thought unit may be a sentence or phrase used as a label on an article or a picture; later it may be a sentence or phrase on an experience chart. When the child comes to use a pre-primer, the thought unit becomes the text and picture on a page or on facing pages. In any case, building a sight vocabulary of words that have meaning presupposes the introduction of words in some context that *gives* them meaning.

Experimentation has led to contradictory claims and to some confusion concerning the value of phonic training in helping children to recognize new words. Nor is there agreement concerning the number of specific phonic units to be taught and the time when these units are to be introduced. The practice frequently followed in modern schools is to postpone formal phonic instruction until children have acquired a basic stock of fifty to one hundred sight words. Moreover, it is recognized that some children have little need for formal instruction in phonics. But since such training appears to be helpful to certain children, the teacher should be prepared to offer appropriate aid whenever it is required. She will give all children encouragement and guidance in word recognition and word study in order to bring about steady growth in vocabulary.

AUDITORY PERCEPTION AND DISCRIMINATION

Very soon after children enter the first grade they should be introduced to games and appropriate exercises to promote skill in auditory discrimination. Word games such as the following may be employed:

1. The sounds made by dogs, cats, cows, bees, ducks (Donald Duck perhaps) may be simulated and repeated by the children to improve the ability to distinguish differences in sounds. If this exercise is introduced as a game, interest may be heightened. Children almost invariably find pleasure in simple games of this type; moreover, such games enable the teacher to identify children whose auditory acuity requires training.

2. A group of words all but one of which begin with a certain sound may be pronounced by the teacher. The pupils may be asked to clap when the word beginning with a different sound is heard. After skill in recognizing initial sounds has been developed, a similar game may be introduced in which words ending with the same sound are employed.

3. Attention may be directed to the beginning sound of a word such as *cat*. Then the pupils may be asked to name other words that begin with the same sound.

4. Exercises similar to those described in 2 and 3 above may be employed to help children recognize common initial speech sounds such as *wh*, *th*, and *sh*.

5. Practice in hearing and recognizing rhyming words when they are presented orally fosters the ability to recognize likenesses in sound. After the meaning of *rhyme* has been explained, the pupils may be asked to name the words that rhyme in a list of words pronounced by the teacher, or in familiar rhymes and jingles such as those found in *Mother Goose*.

VISUAL PERCEPTION AND DISCRIMINATION

Practice to improve visual perception and discrimination should accompany an ear training program. Accurate visual recognition is fostered through attention first to the total form of words, and later to details such as capital letters and inflectional endings. The following simple exercises are appropriate in promoting word recognition in the beginning stage of reading:

1. The length of words should be noted; *e.g.*, *but* is short, *balloons* is long.

2. Differences in the configuration of words of the same length should be stressed. The words *suddenly* and *suitcase* are the same in length and begin with the same letter, but their configurations are significantly different.

3. Words of similar length and form may be compared in order to provide practice in visual discrimination. Lists of words may be selected from the children's textbook, placed on the blackboard, and compared for appearance and for meaning.

4. Attention may be directed to the difference in the appearance of words beginning with capital and small letters. Two columns

of words may be written on the blackboard with the words capitalized in one column and with the same words, not capitalized and in mixed order, in the other column. The children may then be asked to draw lines between two words that say the same thing.

5. Differences should be observed in the singular and plural forms of words written on the blackboard, as *balloon*, *balloons*; *hat*, *hats*.

6. Practice may be given in recognizing the root form of words to which *ed* or *ing* has been added. The derived form may be written on the blackboard, and the children may be asked to make another word by erasing a part of it. Or the basic form may be given and pupils may be asked to build new words by adding suffixes.

7. Exercises to foster the recognition of rhyming words in jingles or in lists of words may be introduced.

8. Attention may be called to the two little words which make up a compound word, as *sunshine*, *sidewalk*.

DEVELOPMENT OF WORD MEANINGS

1. Enrichment of word meaning helps the child to recognize words quickly when they are met in new as well as in familiar contexts. Many short words offer difficulty because there are no objects to which they refer. They should be introduced and taught with extreme care. *Over*, *under*, *down*, *up*, *here*, *there*, are examples of words which frequently confuse the beginner. These words may be written on the blackboard and used in as many different ways as the children can suggest. For example:

The airplane flew *over* the field.

The rain is *over*.

The car ran *over* the boy's hat.

John read the story *over* and *over*.

2. Pictures provide an excellent means for clarifying and enriching the concepts for some familiar words which have many meanings. Characteristic qualities that contribute to understanding the fuller meaning of the word may be brought out by a discussion of photographs or pictures of, for example, different kinds of *dogs*, *houses*, or *chairs*.

3. Association by classification will extend meaning. Words may be grouped under headings such as:

<i>Things We Do</i>	<i>Things We Wear</i>	<i>Things We Eat</i>
play	coat	cake
work	hat	sandwiches
run	socks	peaches
ride	bathing suit	meat

4. Relationships between words may be clarified by the use of exercises involving the association of one word with another word with which it obviously belongs. Children may be asked to draw a line from a word in one column to a related word in a second column, such as:

pig	eat
truck	drink
food	drive
water	squeal

5. The following type of exercise may serve to clarify further relationships between words. Certain words may be written in one column and words that mean the same in another. Pupils may be asked to draw a line connecting the two words that mean the same or almost the same, for example:

little	sea
boat	car
ocean	small
automobile	ship

6. Similarly, a group of words may be written in one column and their opposites in another, and the children asked to draw lines connecting the words that are opposite in meaning, as:

big	up
black	little
yes	white
down	no

VOCABULARY GROWTH THROUGH FIRSTHAND EXPERIENCE

All exercises involving word study should be viewed in terms of the objectives of a balanced reading program. In the first grade, the

teacher faces the problem of providing many of the children with firsthand experiences as the beginning step in vocabulary building. Drawing upon children's immediate background and extending experience whenever possible, many teachers organize reading activities around centers of interest such as pets, clothes, travel, farms, flowers, and so forth. Accordingly, the initial words the child learns to read have meaning and significance (9, 12). The importance of utilizing firsthand experience cannot be overemphasized. For it is from experience that meanings are derived. For example, in the case of a word such as *chair*, the child appreciates the quality of weight by lifting or moving his chair; by sitting in it, he may come to note the shape of the chair; and by other reactions to it, he may sense additional qualities. Finally, by looking at and comparing chairs of different size, color, and composition, he will come to appreciate the fact that the single word stands for different objects all of which are used for one purpose. Such varied sensory reactions are essential to a full understanding of many words.

Certain general principles should guide every effort to stimulate growth in vocabulary. *First*, whenever possible, new words should be associated with firsthand experience; *second*, the meanings of new words obtained by examination of context should be systematically checked to insure that they are reasonably clear and correct; and *third*, new words should be introduced gradually in contexts containing familiar words.

WORD ANALYSIS IN THE SECOND AND THIRD GRADES

Children in the second and third grades are usually ready to profit by more intensive instruction in word analysis. With due regard for their differences and needs, they should be given practice in both auditory and visual analysis in order to increase their skill in attacking new words. During this period attention may be directed to word elements and to principles governing structural and phonetic word analysis, such as:

1. Consonants and blendings at the beginning, middle, and ending of words
2. Long and short vowel sounds
3. Principle of final *e*

4. Digraphs and diphthongs such as *ai, ea, oi, oy*
5. Sounds of *a, e, i, o, u* when followed by *r*
6. Word endings which do not involve changes in the root word
7. Changes in the basic form of some words when a suffix is added: changing *y* to *i* before adding *es* in the plural form of words such as *baby, city*; changing *y* to *i* before adding *es* and *ed* to words such as *carry, hurry*; dropping the final *e* before adding *ing* in words such as *coming, having*; doubling the final consonant in one-syllable words before adding *ed* or *ing*, as *stopped, running*; or before adding *er* and *est*, as *hotter, hottest*. If children are encouraged to make their own generalizations and formulate their own rules, exercises will have maximum value.
8. *Contractions and the apostrophe as an indication of letters left out.* These should be explained when they occur. Children may be asked to name the two words in a contraction, or to make a contraction of two given words.
9. *Prefixes and suffixes.* To aid recognition, the children may be asked to underline the root form to which a syllable such as *a* or *un* has been prefixed or a suffix such as *y, ly, ful, or ness* has been added. Practice in building new words by the addition of prefixes and suffixes should also be provided.
10. *Alphabetizing and syllabication.* In the third grade, the children should prepare for efficient use of dictionaries and other reference materials. Preliminary steps may be taken by providing practice (1) in arranging words in alphabetical order and (2) in recognizing syllables in words both by sound and by sight.

ESTABLISHMENT AND MAINTENANCE OF CORRECT HABITS IN SILENT READING

Correct eye movement habits should, of course, receive attention in the first grade. In the second and third grades, the right habits should be maintained and faulty habits should be corrected at their onset. When the pupils open their books to read the teacher may, as frequently as it seems desirable, remind them to begin reading at the left of the page. Similarly, if a child reverses a word such as *on*, or *saw*, or confuses words such as *felt* and *left*, the teacher should call his attention to the first letter in such words, pronounce the words correctly, and have the child repeat them. It is necessary, too,

for the teacher to continue the kinds of exercises previously suggested in this chapter for the development and enrichment of word meanings and relationships.

SUGGESTIONS FOR DEVELOPING SENTENCE MEANING

In order to improve the pupils' ability to obtain accurate meaning from sentences, and to recognize them quickly as units of thought, the following exercises are suggested:

1. Children may be asked to relate in complete sentences some interesting experience they have enjoyed together. One child may be called upon to give a sentence and others may add sentences until the experience has been fully related. The sentences may be written on the blackboard, arranged in the most appropriate order, and read aloud.

2. Questions may be asked by the teacher which can be answered by a phrase or by a sentence. The answers, consisting of phrases and sentences, may be written on the blackboard by the teacher. The pupils may then be asked to find the sentences and read them aloud.

3. Sentences which are found in the textbooks may be written on the blackboard by the teacher. The pupils may then be asked to find each sentence in their books.

4. The teacher or a pupil may ask questions that can be answered by sentences to be found in the textbook. Other pupils may then be asked to locate in their books sentences that answer the questions.

5. The children may be asked to find a sentence in their books that would make a good title for a story or a picture.

6. The pupils may be encouraged to make up sentences that describe various pictures in their books.

7. The children may be requested to arrange a group of sentences which are presented out of sequence in the order necessary to portray the way events in an episode took place in the story in their books.

8. The teacher may place on the blackboard several sentences in which the words are not arranged in their correct order. The pupils should be asked to rearrange the words so as to make meaningful sentences.

9. The children's attention may be directed to certain sentences in their textbooks. A pupil may be asked to read each sentence aloud. Then the other children may be asked to make up different sentences which say the same thing as the sentence in the book. Each new sentence should be placed on the blackboard to be read aloud by different pupils.

SUGGESTIONS FOR DEVELOPING PHRASE RECOGNITION

The recognition of phrases as thought units is another aspect of meaningful reading. This skill, sometimes overstressed, should be given only its necessary and appropriate share of attention. Phrase recognition may be improved by using exercises such as the following:

1. Titles for stories and pictures may be written on the blackboard and their suitability discussed; then pupils may be asked to suggest other phrases that would make equally appropriate titles.

2. The class may be directed to locate in their books certain phrases which are written on the blackboard; and they may be asked to find other phrases that answer questions.

3. Phrases that have an unusual or, perhaps, colloquial connotation may be written on the blackboard and their meaning discussed; for example, *keep an eye on*. These phrases may be used in sentences, and substitute expressions may be found for them.

4. A column of phrases may be written on the blackboard opposite the sentences in which they appear, and the children may be asked to find the same phrases in the sentences and underline them.

5. Another exercise, similar to 4, may be devised in which the phrases in the column are arranged in mixed order. The children should be asked to draw a line from each sentence to the phrase which it contains.

6. Phrases may be written in one column on the blackboard and words or other phrases that mean the same in another column. Children may be asked to draw lines connecting two items that have the same meaning.

7. Pupils may be asked to locate in their books sentences that contain given phrases.

8. A series of two phrases which, together, make a sentence may be written on the blackboard in two columns. Different children may then be asked to draw a line from each phrase at the left to the one at the right with which it belongs in a meaningful sentence. The two phrases that belong together should not be placed directly opposite each other.

Although the foregoing exercises for studying sentences, phrases, and words are recommended for improving recognition and for promoting growth in reading, the skills so developed must be considered secondary to the broader and more significant function of reading; namely, to obtain meaning from reading materials presented in a whole unit, episode, or story. Properly stressed in this larger setting, these exercises will have value and significance.

THE PERIOD OF RAPID PROGRESS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF HABITS AND SKILLS

When a child enters the middle grades, he discovers that special reading skills in subject fields such as science, social studies, and other areas are more frequently required than in the primary grades. He finds also that he needs to make extensive use of reference books and other aids. Conspicuous, too, are demands for skill in locating information, in associating ideas, in organizing materials read, in adjusting rate of reading to different purposes for reading, and in reading critically. Competence in such abilities will develop fully if guidance and training are given according to individual needs. Although efficient silent reading is the main objective of instruction in the middle grades, children should continue to have abundant opportunities to read aloud in good audience situations.

In addition, the middle grade pupil will need training in finding and using reading materials so as to obtain a better understanding of himself and his own personal problems. He will need help in reading materials concerning social issues and events. Finally, like all children and youth at all stages of development, he should find that reading can make an important contribution to the enjoyment of his leisure. Reading for fun is an objective similar to many other aims in having fundamental significance at every stage of growth.

The outline on the following page cites those reading processes and skills which should be emphasized in the middle grades.

- I. DEVELOPING COMPREHENSION
 - A. Following directions and finding information
 - B. Finding answers to personal and social problems
 - C. Reading a story for various purposes
 - D. Understanding words
- II. READING TO REMEMBER
 - A. Remembering important ideas
 - B. Remembering significant details
- III. ASSOCIATING IDEAS AND MATERIALS
 - A. Finding proof
 - B. Finding information relevant to particular problems
 - C. Examining basic assumptions
 - D. Studying the adequacy of presentations
- IV. ORGANIZING IDEAS AND MATERIALS
 - A. Arranging events in sequence and making outlines
 - B. Summarizing
- V. INCREASING SPEED OF SILENT READING
- VI. IMPROVING ORAL READING

I. DEVELOPING COMPREHENSION

This ability is such an integral part of the whole reading program that it cannot rightly be considered as a separate and distinct skill at any level. Although increase in the ability to comprehend reading matter is dependent in part upon vocabulary growth and concept building, the ability to comprehend can be improved by specific exercises in purposeful reading.

A. Following directions and finding information.

Many of the skills which have been introduced in the primary grades will need to be reviewed and developed further during the middle grades. Particular attention should be given to the ability to follow different kinds of directions.

Children need to be able to follow printed directions in order to carry out many important tasks. In every case the teacher should aim to formulate directions that will be comprehended fully. Moreover, guidance and encouragement should be given in order that steady progress in following directions of increasing difficulty will

be made by every child. Exercises in practice books promote this ability, since the pupil is expected to read independently and to follow the directions which introduce each exercise. It is sometimes advisable for the teacher to make a check list of the types of directions which children must follow in order to be successful in various activities. By ascertaining each child's ability to carry out different types of directions, the teacher will be able to give individual help as it is needed.

B. Finding answers to personal and social problems.

The middle grade pupil should receive help in finding solutions to his personal and social problems. These problems may be revealed by an interest inventory which includes questions concerning wishes, fears, and problems. (Such an inventory has been described in Chapter II.) After his problems have been considered and evaluated by the teacher, the pupil should be directed to printed materials which suggest solutions, and he should be led gradually to attain independence in the use of varied sources of such information.

C. Reading a story for various purposes.

The teacher should formulate purposes for reading and rereading a story. Definite aims stimulate children's interest and guide their efforts. Purposes for reading stories include discovering the general outcome of the story, enjoying humorous happenings, comparing different plots, and preparing to tell or dramatize an episode.

Children at this level should be helped to note personality traits in the characters; to compare settings for similarities and differences; to appreciate characteristics of literary style; to recognize the mood of a story; and to understand time and space concepts.

It is clear that other types of reading materials involve different purposes from those associated with reading a story. For example, the pupil may be examining the newspaper to obtain an overview of the happenings of the day, to follow the sequence of certain events, or to ascertain a critic's evaluation of a book. Or the pupil may be reading a biography to obtain certain dates or to enjoy the life story of an interesting person. These and many other considerations will dictate how he reads. Pupils should have training and experience in reading according to the varied purposes inherent in a balanced reading program.

D. Understanding words.

Vocabulary development should receive continuous attention throughout the middle grades. During this period, children should receive help in studying synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, action words, words that describe, and words which have been altered by the addition of prefixes and suffixes. Children need assistance, too, in using the dictionary and in interpreting glossaries of terms. Detailed suggestions for word study are found in Chapter IV and in preceding pages of this chapter.

II. READING TO REMEMBER

A. Remembering important ideas.

To develop this skill, the child must be offered many opportunities to show how well he has remembered important ideas, such as those which establish the background and setting in a story, carry the action forward, or develop personality in the characters.

B. Remembering significant details.

This acquisition is one in which many children, poor readers especially, need guidance. Practice books, which provide exercises designed to improve this ability, can be used at times to advantage. There are other methods, too, which the classroom teacher may employ. Stories that are rich in sensory imagery are one type of material which offers the teacher an opportunity to have pupils react to the details of the printed page. These stories may be read, and children asked to see how many different items eliciting reactions of sight, hearing, taste, and so forth they can report in a given time. Scoring and discussing true-false tests also may prove of value in helping children to note significant details in stories they have read. It is necessary for the teacher to bear in mind that the ability to note details is not a general skill permeating all endeavor; instead it is a series of acquisitions involved in seeking particular information of various kinds. Accordingly, the teacher will assemble passages and episodes on different topics, encourage careful or detailed reading, and observe each child's performance in dealing with various types of subject matter. Every pupil should be offered individual help and guidance.

III. ASSOCIATING IDEAS AND MATERIALS

Associating ideas as one reads involves more than mere comprehension of what is on the printed page. It requires interpretation of ideas and facts in terms of related experiences and knowledge. Exercises in verifying statements, predicting outcomes, making comparisons, recalling related ideas, drawing conclusions, determining cause and effect, and selecting relevant ideas will contribute to growth in the ability to associate ideas.

A. Finding proof.

Verifying statements involves such skills as the ability to select relevant ideas and to reject irrelevant ones. Exercises in which children are asked to select passages that support fact will be particularly helpful in promoting this acquisition. Exercises of this type are found in guides and practice books for textbooks. The following is an illustration:

Below is a statement of fact. Following are several sentences which prove the truth of the statement. Included is one sentence, however, which does not offer proof that the statement is true. Cross out the wrong sentence.

As a boy Christopher Columbus had many interests.

1. The sailors' talk interested Columbus more than the weaving in his father's house, for he was fond of hearing about travel.
2. He was fair skinned and bright eyed.
3. He liked geography and he liked maps.
4. He was interested in geometry and astronomy.
5. He enjoyed reading and took an interest in science.

Investigations have shown that some middle grade children may pass standard tests in reading and still be unable to tell whether certain materials are relevant to particular problems presented to them. Other studies stress the fact that many children are unlikely to examine the authenticity and accuracy of reports. Hence, attention should be given to various forms of critical reading. These acquisitions comprise a complex array of habits and skills which depend on the type of material read and the child's purpose in reading.

B. Finding information relevant to particular problems.

Children need help in finding information relevant to particular problems. For the classroom teacher, this means that two important types of training must be undertaken. One of these involves the development of exercises which will cause the student to become expert in deciding whether reading materials are relevant to particular problems. This skill should be cultivated daily in the child's reaction to varied types of materials chosen to meet recurring problems. For example, the pupils may be confronted with the problem of selecting costumes or furniture to be used in presenting a play. They may seek information uncritically at first in volumes containing narratives, dramas, biographies, historical passages, and so forth. They should be led to inquire: Which of the sources are most likely to yield the particular information we need? To proceed efficiently, pupils require experience in evaluating the usefulness of various sources in satisfying needs for different kinds of information.

The second type of training essential for locating information efficiently is the proper use of library resources. Boys and girls should be able to turn quickly to the appropriate source for answers to different problems. They need also to know how to use to best advantage the library card catalog, the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*, and other indexes. And, after they have found a book or an article on a topic, they must know how to read the index and how to use the table of contents to locate relevant facts. (4, 8, 13)

Considerable experience is necessary before pupils can use reference materials effectively, since this ability involves much more than simply the quick location of relevant materials (4). Children must be able to scan materials and reach a decision as to their relevancy, adequacy, and authenticity. In the quest for authentic materials, they need not only actual experience but also expert guidance.

C. Examining basic assumptions.

Some pupils in the fifth or sixth grade, as well as many in the seventh or eighth, will be prepared to engage profitably in exercises designed to make them increasingly critical of basic assumptions in printed materials. To foster critical reading, teachers are employing with success a number of interesting approaches. For example,

students are encouraged as a first step to read simple passages of historical importance and to answer certain cause-effect questions. They are then presented with more complex social studies materials which are scrutinized to ascertain the author's purpose. Scientific reports may also be examined, and students may be encouraged to inquire: "What are the facts upon which the author bases his case?" "How does he interpret his facts?" If the reading matter is in story form, students may be led to examine the plausibility of the story: "Could the events occur?" "Is the author qualified and experienced in the field in which he writes?" "Are the characters and situations distorted and unreal?"

D. Studying the adequacy of presentations.

Clearly associated with competency in examining basic assumptions is another skill which should be emphasized in the upper elementary grades and in junior high school (4, 5). The student should examine each of several presentations on a particular topic in order to determine its adequacy. He should inquire:

Is the account reasonably complete?

Is the author's conclusion justified?

Are more data needed?

Are sources for further study and for checking the presentation suggested?

Is the account prepared by a qualified person?

Answers to such questions require the student to examine critically the validity and the reliability of each presentation. Thus, the development of a scientific attitude is encouraged.

IV. ORGANIZING IDEAS AND MATERIALS

Pupils in the middle grades need to know how to make a sequential arrangement of ideas, how to outline, and how to summarize. Guidance and training should be provided as they are needed by groups and individuals in developing and applying these skills.

A. Arranging events in sequence and making outlines.

Exercises to promote these skills should be carefully graded. In the initial stages of training in organizing ideas, children may be asked to find and to state the main idea of each paragraph in a short

selection. Exercises may then require them to find and state subordinate ideas. Outlines should then be prepared in which main and subordinate ideas are differentiated and arranged sequentially. Finally, the pupils should be encouraged to make additional outlines for presentations on different topics of their own selection.

B. Summarizing.

In similar manner, training in summarizing should progress from simple to more difficult tasks. In the initial stages of learning to summarize, the exercises may consist of a series of statements, presented by the teacher, to be arranged in the right order. The statements, when arranged correctly, should summarize the main events in a story. In later stages, the pupils should be expected to write, in their own words, the main ideas developed by the author and to arrange the sentences in correct sequence.

V. INCREASING SPEED OF SILENT READING

In silent reading, improvement in rate is most rapid in the primary grades. By the time the child is in the fourth or fifth grade, he often attains a relatively mature rate in silent reading. Studies have shown that the child in the middle grades may, under proper guidance, attain a rate of reading equal to that of the typical high school student. In fact, if the pupil's instruction is carefully planned, he will usually achieve, by the time he enters the sixth grade, as rapid a reading rate as he will ever need. After this time, the problem becomes one of learning to adjust rate to need or purpose in reading. Because of the rapidity of the development of reading rate in the primary grades, it is well to make an appraisal of each child's progress from time to time. Whenever rate of reading is tested, comprehension must also be checked. Throughout the middle grades, the teacher should continue to appraise rate of reading. A periodic check on rate should not be planned for the purpose of enforcing a norm or of achieving a standard performance; instead, it is to insure a continuous development and to help each child achieve acceptable rates in reading different kinds of materials, such as those that require careful reading for details and those that need only to be skimmed for general information.

A simple way to measure the reading rate of a class of middle

grade pupils is to start the reading of a selection at a given time, watch a timepiece, and record on the blackboard the passing of time in quarters of a minute. When a child completes the article, he looks up and notes the last number written on the blackboard. Later he divides the number of words in the article (estimating by counting words in a line and multiplying by the number of lines) by the number of minutes which have been used in reading the selection. Thus the child or teacher may compute the number of words read per minute. Monthly comparisons of rates in reading different types of material are helpful to many children, if too great importance is not attached to them.

VI. IMPROVING ORAL READING

Although the teacher should stress the significance of silent reading, she must not minimize the importance of oral reading throughout the course of a balanced reading program (15). Pupils in one third grade class suggested the following characteristics of a good oral reader:

A good reader studies his story. He knows how to pronounce all the words. He makes us understand every word.
He makes us feel excited, happy, or sad as the story is.
He reads as if he were really the character in the story.
He has a pleasant voice and good reading manners.
He seems to enjoy reading to us.
He makes us want to get the book he is reading, so we can read that story too. (6, p. 140)

Improvement in oral reading is most rapid during the first three or four grades; steady though slower progress follows in the fifth and sixth grades. During the primary grades, children should be encouraged to share stories that they have read silently, and to read aloud their favorite selections. Opportunities should be provided through conferences for every child to read aloud short excerpts from different types of material. Additional opportunities for oral expression should be offered through participation in dramatics and other creative pursuits.

In the middle grades, significant personal and social values as well as important educational outcomes are products of an effective oral reading program.

Well known to most of us are the *personal values*, such as the development of poise, self-confidence, improved breath-control and posture, better voice quality, flexibility of speech, distinct articulation, and a natural variety of expression, both in reading and in speaking.

Some of the *social values* to be gained are blended with the personal values. To improve in self-confidence, to have more poise, a better voice, more breath-control, and better posture — all contribute to one's social equality and security.

One of the *educational values* of oral reading is the development of greater appreciation. Certainly poetry, which is written as much for sound as for sense, reveals more to anyone through being read aloud; plays and orations do not come to life without the spoken word; anecdotes, short stories, and letters often reveal humor and subtle meanings through interpretative oral reading. Meanings sometimes become clear through hearing as well as seeing words, phrases, and sentences. Reading them aloud, or hearing them read, often fixes them in one's consciousness and gives them familiarity. As an aid in diagnosis, oral reading reveals many clues to a child's difficulty in reading, such as word by word reading, substitutions, omissions, improper phrasing, guessing, ignoring punctuation, wandering of eyes over page, and many others. (16, p. 144)

THE PERIOD FOR EXTENSION OF FUNCTIONAL READING HABITS AND FOR CULTIVATION OF TASTES

The upper middle grades and the junior high school are periods in which reading skills should be maintained, strengthened, and widely applied. Because of the wide range of reading ability found within every class, the teacher must continue to give help and guidance to many pupils who need further assistance in strengthening basic habits and skills. Moreover, a developmental reading program must extend into every subject field, and every teacher must assume responsibility for the improvement of reading skills.

READING IN THE FIELD OF ENGLISH

Modern teachers of English stress three important outcomes of reading experience. Reading, properly guided in terms of pupils' abilities and interests, may enable them (1) to gain a better understanding of themselves and their personal environment; (2) to ob-

tain an appreciation and comprehension of their social environment; *e.g.*, the area of work, family life, recreation, and home responsibility; and (3) to participate in a leisure pursuit that is intensely satisfying and individually beneficial. Modern teachers are estimating the worth of a reading program by its contribution to individually worthy patterns of reading. They stress the value of wide reading in satisfying individual needs and in promoting growth and adjustment. An attempt to develop such a broad program and to judge its outcomes has been reported by Witty and Kopel wherein amount and level of reading, the child's own evaluation, and other factors were considered (22). A somewhat similar approach with the emphasis on gains in amount of reading has been reported by LaBrant and Heller (11), who have sought to evaluate the effectiveness of the program by use of answers to the following questions:

1. To what extent has reading proved a factor in the student's life pattern; *i.e.*, is it integrated with his varied interests?
2. Which of these interests, if any, has reading helped to extend and intensify?
3. Does the reading give evidence of being varied according to individual needs, interests, and abilities?
4. Is there evidence that the reading has met criteria developed by the students themselves; *i.e.*, has guidance actually recognized individual and group needs and interests? is reading purposeful? (11, pp. 2-3)

Convincing data are presented by LaBrant and Heller to demonstrate the effectiveness of this approach in eliciting the maximum effort on the part of every child in the class.

For example, a boy, student A, entered the tenth grade with a reading skill so low that he attained only the fourth grade level on tests. Remedial work enabled him to read narratives understandingly. During the school year his interest in the reading of narratives developed and grew dominant. This type of reading made it possible for him to take part in class discussions and to participate as an active member in other kinds of group work. He soon became a contributor in the social science class. Gradually his interest was deepened and extended to include other types of reading. His pattern of reading in the twelfth grade showed the effects of his

successful experience in the social studies, as well as the generally beneficial effect of broad reading experiences.

The most significant contribution of this work is the clear-cut evidence it affords, in the form of reading records, that a worthy pattern of growth can be achieved for pupils of widely different abilities within the same group. The reading record of student B was different from that of student A, for his problems were distinctly different. His reading list discloses greater maturity than student A's. Of superior ability, he had a great interest in science and was extremely dissatisfied with his previous life philosophy and religion. A wide reading program enabled him to satisfy his interests and achieve a better adjustment.

The results of the work of LaBrant and Heller are indeed provocative. The amount of reading was large; an average of 20.3 books was read by the fifty seventh grade pupils, while the average for the eighth grade pupils was 18.5. These writers state:

A great diversity was found in the books recorded on the individual reading records of the children. . . . The sampling of authors increased in each grade with both boys and girls. Among these authors certain ones were read more frequently than others. In the seventh grade the group read a total of 997 books representing 532 different titles and 246 authors but only 41 of these titles were read as many as five times. In the ninth grade a total of 1565 volumes was read and this number represented 940 different titles and 572 authors with only 46 of these titles read five or more times. (11, p. 17)

The best overview of this reading program may be obtained by a perusal of the complete list of titles of books read (11). Such an examination will reveal the fact that many books are needed to satisfy the wide range in interests and needs within a typical classroom. Moreover, the results of this study show that guidance is needed so that each pupil may develop a pattern of reading that is individually most appropriate and satisfying.

READING IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES FIELD

Training and guidance in the areas listed on the following page are essential to efficient instruction in every subject field.

1. Vocabulary development
2. Concept building
3. Seeing relationships and reading critically
4. Organizing information and facts
5. Securing collateral reading and related source materials

The significance of the foregoing list is at once apparent in a field such as the social studies. For in this field many new words and abstract concepts present unusually heavy demands on reading skill. The author will set forth some steps which can be taken to provide guidance and training in reading social studies materials.

CONCEPT BUILDING

The child is often unprepared by his general experiences and unequipped by his reading instruction to understand the new words which he encounters in the social studies. The upper middle grade and junior high school pupil will meet terms such as "hemisphere," "new world," and "western civilization." He will encounter frequent use of the names of unfamiliar "races"; difficult metaphor and baffling abstract terms will also be met in his reading. (5)

In reading materials of this type, the teacher can help children greatly. She can be on the lookout from the first to detect and correct misconceptions; and she can prevent the development of inaccurate or distorted concepts through the use of fact-finding and discussion techniques. By stimulating extensive reading she can help pupils obtain facts or illustrations upon which a clear understanding of many terms depends. The use of direct experience, photographs, filmstrips, and motion pictures may also aid in building backgrounds essential to an understanding of many new words and phrases.

In Chapter III attention was given to conceptual terms. It is fitting to consider their special role in the social studies. Words such as "propaganda," "patriotism," "fascism," and so forth, occupy a central position in this area; and a clear understanding of them is essential in bringing about effective communication and unbiased interpretation. Teachers are using a variety of means to foster an appreciation of these terms; one of the most fruitful is the conference or discussion period, when difficult terms are taken up, interpreted, and defined. In another approach, teachers are

stimulating pupils to study the origin and development of these terms as factors in our changing language. Under these conditions, communication is clarified and human relationships are improved. (21)

One of the problems faced by the teacher of social studies involves the reading of maps and map symbols. It will be of interest in this connection to examine the Army's practice during World War II in teaching geographical vocabulary to illiterate and non-English-speaking men.

A filmstrip, *The World*, was devised to present the basic vocabulary and concepts in geography which were needed to understand war news and operations. Practically all of the terms included were nouns which referred to objects with which the trainees had little acquaintance. Moreover, these soldiers had many misconceptions which required correction or clarification. For example, many illiterate men in the Army had very vague ideas regarding the geographical relationship of land and water. Other men were not oriented as to the location of and distance between various places throughout the world. The filmstrip was designed to help these men develop some basic concepts associated with the geography of the world.

The filmstrip *The World* consists of forty-five frames which present labeled pictures pertaining to places, people, products, industries, climate, and transportation. The filmstrip is divided into six sections:

1. Introduction, frames 1 through 9
2. The Land, frames 10 through 22
3. The Water, frames 23 through 31
4. The Land and Water, frames 32 through 39
5. Direction, frames 40 through 43
6. Conclusion, frames 44 and 45

Section 1 presents a series of preliminary and explanatory frames, and section 2 portrays certain surface elements of our land: continents, mountains, hills, valleys, forests, plains, and deserts. Countries, cities, and towns are also pictured. Section 3 is designed to help the men develop clear concepts for the words *ocean*, *sea*, *gulf*, *bay*, *river*, *lake*, and *canal*. The next section presents words involving land and water: *shore*, *beach*, *bank*, *harbor*, *peninsula*, and *island*.

Section 5 aims to help the men build accurate concepts related to direction; *e.g.*, north, south, east, west, and derived concepts such as northeast, southwest, and so forth.

The labeled pictures offer considerable help in establishing a background for understanding. However, additional aids are suggested in the instructor's guide. It is recognized that it is impossible "to delimit the concept of a continent for a trainee in the same definitive way that one can delimit the concepts related to many other object nouns. One does not speak of the use, appearance, or function of a continent; nor does one demonstrate through gesture its size or shape. The formulation of visual concepts of this type of geographic term requires use of the imagination. And to insure that such concepts are not erroneously founded, it is suggested that extensive use be made of models, pictures, charts, maps, and other visual aids."

In the teacher's guide, detailed instructions are given to insure the careful development of each concept. For example, it is suggested that aerial views or ordinary maps of camp terrain which is familiar to the men be utilized to show the relationship between known objects and their position on a map. The instructor is advised also to have the men construct simple maps, study different types of maps, and use in oral and written context the new words or expressions encountered.

The foregoing principles may be applied by the classroom teacher in the development of the highly specialized vocabulary found in some aspects of the social studies. Boys and girls, like the men in the Army, often need careful guidance in developing specialized vocabularies, in reading simple graphs, in interpreting pictorial maps, and in comprehending materials depicted in diagrammatic form.

SEEING RELATIONSHIPS AND READING CRITICALLY

Pupils need help in seeing the relations between facts encountered in different sources and contexts (5). Techniques have been widely used by classroom teachers to stimulate and to insure the development of this ability. For example, a problem such as one which requires the students to ascertain the amount of food produced in certain countries is presented and discussed. The pupils are then directed to examine various sources for solutions. They

are requested not only to report pertinent or relevant materials, but also to tell why certain passages are not considered relevant. Their understanding may be checked further by using a matching exercise in which they are asked to identify passages that belong together because they pertain to a certain topic.

The social studies, rich in the subject matter of human relationships, present many opportunities for stressing events described in newspapers and in magazines. The ability to see the relationship between various types of presentations should be fostered in the early elementary grades, in connection perhaps with the use of *My Weekly Reader* and other periodicals. Articles in magazines such as *Current Events* and *Young America* may be used in later grades to obtain information bearing on curriculum themes or topics treated in the social studies.

A critical attitude should be encouraged in reading these different sources. In examining the authority for reports, some children may be helped by studying and contrasting the views of different authors. Other pupils may become interested in making a list of authors who write for children and in examining the types of materials they produce, the sources upon which they draw for their conclusions, and the extent to which they are impartial and objective.

After examining narrative as well as factual accounts, the pupil should be led to inquire: "Is the writer an authority in his field?" "Where and how did he obtain his facts?" "Are his presentations dependable?" With upper grade pupils such discussions may properly include a treatment of propaganda. If the reading matter is in story form, the pupils should be encouraged to examine the plausibility of the story as well as the qualifications of the author. Thus one sixth grade boy's study led him to say scornfully about an author: "You can tell that he never played football." Another boy remarked: "This writer certainly knows *everything* about Mexico." Before making the comment concerning Mexico, this pupil, as a member of a group, studied biographical accounts to ascertain the author's competency to write about Mexico.

The interests and problems of older children reflect increasing maturity and include many significant social issues. These complex problems should be dealt with but they should be treated on the pupil's level. The teacher should avoid forcing discussion on a level

beyond the student's true comprehension. However, there is need for both teachers and pupils to examine critically current issues and social problems.

The editors of *Educational Leadership* secured the reactions of more than 1200 students toward questions of race and creed. These reactions have been summarized in a pamphlet entitled *We, The Children* (17). In the students' statements one finds generalizations based on one or two cases, careless use of words, and unfounded rumors presented as fact. It should be borne in mind that these reactions represent faulty concepts, but teachers sometimes fail to recognize them as such. Is it not as much the teacher's business to inquire into the meaning or the substance as into the form of expression or the accuracy of reproduction?

On the other hand, there are presented in the pamphlet examples of "Straight Thinking" which were undoubtedly engendered by teachers who encourage boys and girls to examine basic assumptions and to find out for themselves whether the conclusions of various authors are warranted by their data.

Discussion and exchange of ideas will help to improve thinking about social issues (21). In every classroom, the teacher will find opportunities for stressing the meaning and implication of what is said or written. For example, a student recently began a report by stating: "Now that most of our food is being sent to impoverished European nations . . ." The teacher asked, "What part of our supply of food is being shipped to different countries?" The class discussed the point, examined various reports, sought figures, and arrived at a conclusion which caused the student to modify his original statement.

Does the teacher have the information or the time necessary to correct all the inaccurate statements students will make? Of course not. But the teacher can help all pupils, not so much by correcting their statements as by leading them to develop a critical attitude toward language expression. The teacher can consistently insist upon the identification of unfamiliar terms and upon the examination of meanings; and he can see that students explain, interpret, and verify their statements. Thus a scientific attitude will be developed which will cause students to eliminate inaccurate statements and to beware of indefensible generalizations.

ORGANIZING INFORMATION AND FACTS

The ability to organize materials is in part a result of reacting, as one reads, to the significance of various points in a presentation. Obviously, the development of this ability is dependent upon the type of materials read and the student's background of experience and information. However, there are many pupils who have developed the habit of reading all types of materials in much the same way. They appear to have little expectation that they will be required to do more than reproduce a few facts from the accounts they read. It is desirable, therefore, to provide exercises that will encourage these pupils to react more intensely to content from various sources. Some pupils may be helped by practice in making outlines in which they are obliged to differentiate main topics from subordinate themes. It may prove profitable for these pupils to list items or events in certain assignments according to the order of their occurrence. Pupils should be encouraged to summarize briefly the significant facts in various presentations and to offer their summaries in oral or written form for group discussion. Again the teacher must bear in mind that the ability to summarize is not a general acquisition. Hence, pupils must be encouraged to develop skill in summarizing materials presented on various topics in narrative, factual, and other written forms.

To ascertain whether pupils have comprehended and organized certain types of historical content, the teacher will find it helpful at times to have them indicate the sequence of the main events or happenings. Appreciation of the order of events in certain stories or presentations may be tested further by the use of mimeographed tests in which the pupil must rearrange "scrambled" statements. These and other approaches will enable pupils to acquire concepts of time and space relationships. (5)

SECURING COLLATERAL READING AND RELATED SOURCE MATERIALS

The use of a variety of supplementary materials is essential in effective instruction in the social studies (4, 5). The ability to locate materials, therefore, becomes an important reading objective since the field of social studies has many special reference materials of its own. Proper use of encyclopedias, dictionaries, and biographical materials is a complex skill which requires guidance. Children need

guidance also in developing the techniques essential for use of other types of reference materials, such as atlases and almanacs.

Not only do pupils require guidance and help in the use of source materials to obtain information, but they also need access to a wide variety of good reading material in many fields. Wesley and Adams (18, pp. 227-228) list the following sixty-two areas in which, they believe, the modern school should provide appropriate materials for the student of social studies:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Actors and the theater | 32. Isolated peoples |
| 2. Animals | 33. Labor |
| 3. Artists | 34. Making things |
| 4. Aviation | 35. Manufacturing |
| 5. Biography | 36. Medicine, Leaders in |
| 6. Business and industry | 37. Migrations |
| 7. Chivalry | 38. Mining |
| 8. Circus | 39. Musicians |
| 9. City life | 40. Mystery |
| 10. Costuming | 41. Mythology |
| 11. Crime | 42. Patriotic stories |
| 12. Current affairs | 43. Personal problems |
| 13. Discovery and exploration | 44. Pioneers |
| 14. Fairy stories | 45. Playing and games |
| 15. Family life | 46. Poetry |
| 16. Farm life | 47. Policemen and detectives |
| 17. Food | 48. Primitive peoples |
| 18. Foreign lands | 49. School and college |
| 19. Friendship | 50. Science, Men of |
| 20. Government | 51. Sea, Stories of the |
| 21. Health | 52. Small town life |
| 22. Heroism | 53. Social problems |
| 23. History | 54. Sports |
| 24. Hobbies | 55. Success, Stories of |
| 25. Holidays | 56. Travel |
| 26. Housing | 57. Vacations |
| 27. Humor | 58. Vocations |
| 28. Hunting | 59. War |
| 29. Immigrants | 60. Western life |
| 30. Indians | 61. Wild life |
| 31. Inventions | 62. Writers |

The modern teacher of reading introduces story material related to the content of the social studies program. Authentic materials such as the *New World Neighbors* series of stories about Canada, Alaska, Hawaii, Chile, and other countries of importance in American life provide diversified reading experience on topics which appear in the social studies curriculum. Many other types of narratives may be employed to articulate the work in reading and the social

studies. Exciting and timely books which children love will also aid in making reading interesting and attractive. *Mickey Sees the U.S.A.*, by Caroline D. Emerson, and *Donald Duck Sees South America*, by H. Marion Palmer, both illustrated by Disney, are examples of books which will offer some children a fortunate introduction to reading about their own and other countries and peoples.

A word should be said about the relationship of visual aids to the reading process, since a broad interpretation of the reading process necessitates a consideration of visual and auditory materials. These aids should never be thought of as substitutes for reading experience, but instead as vital parts of a balanced program in which they serve to present certain facts, extend information, and motivate instruction. As Wesley and Adams say:

Audio-visual materials may be used effectively for various purposes and at various stages in the teaching process. Pictures, films, models, or recordings can be employed to introduce a new topic or unit of work. The motivation values of the aids are stressed when they are used for this purpose. The same audio-visual materials may frequently be used for direct teaching of facts and relationships. Probably direct teaching is the usage which will be expanded most rapidly in the near future, as more teachers realize the valuable results which can be obtained and master the techniques of instruction through sensory materials. Audio-visual aids may also be used for illustration of specific points, for review and summary, and, occasionally, for testing. (18, p. 235)

DEVELOPMENTAL READING PROGRAMS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The foregoing descriptions of reading programs adapted to individual needs reflect a considerable advance in educational theory and practice. Yet one may logically inquire: To what extent are developmental reading programs found in typical high schools? Perhaps a fairly reliable indication of the status of reading in the high school may be obtained from William R. Wood's account entitled "Typical Programs of High School Reading Instruction" in the *North Central Association Quarterly* for April 1947. (24)

The author points out that the reading problem has been recog-

nized by teachers generally; specific difficulties of individual pupils are being discovered; and some remedial work is being undertaken. Out of 418 high schools in the North Central Association reporting in a survey, 409 stated that they included reading comprehension tests as a part of their objective measurement program. Wood concludes:

From a study of the survey reports, a procedure pattern emerges. The typical school does a good deal of objective testing to determine reading deficiencies. On the basis of the test results and previous scholastic records, pupils are homogeneously grouped. Those who are two or more years retarded are placed in special remedial sections where progress is determined largely by the individual teacher's enthusiasm and special knowledge. Periodically, additional reading tests are given to measure progress, and pupils are transferred to classes at their own grade level if the test results and other factors warrant. The remedial class may be an extra assignment for after school hours or a replacement of the usual activities hour. Ordinarily, however, it is simply a substitution for the regular English course offered by the school. In a few instances schools which do not have specially trained teachers of reading are fortunate in being able to utilize the services of a private reading clinic.

No one is satisfied with the typical procedures that have been outlined. The whole problem of the developmental program for average and superior students is not handled in an effective way. The remedial work seldom accomplishes as much as it should. For the ambitious teacher there are unusual opportunities ahead for discovery of new methods, for the production of better materials, and for the creation of an over-all reading instruction plan. (24, pp. 482-483)

Although the typical high school is simply making a beginning in the inauguration of developmental reading programs, there are a considerable number of schools which recognize their responsibility and are making significant progress. This movement, however, is barely getting under way, as is shown by another quotation from the *North Central Association Quarterly*. One writer states:

In the survey of North Central High Schools made in 1945 by the Research and Service Commission covering instruction in the fundamentals of learning, 59.1 per cent of the 2270 high schools

reporting indicated some organized plan of reading instruction. This suggested that the majority of North Central Association high schools have come to recognize that it is the responsibility of the high school to improve the ability of students to read. This means, of course, not only reading in general literature, but reading in each one of the content fields. The teachers of these content fields are recognizing that the ability to read is synonymous with the ability to study, and the successful achievement of every student is dependent in a large part on that ability. (1, p. 473)

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

In this chapter, the author has suggested some ways through which instruction in reading may be made more effective throughout elementary and secondary schools. It has become clear that one of the great needs in education at the present time is the extension and coordination of programs of reading instruction. At the primary and intermediate levels of the elementary school, the great need is for improved programs that recognize children's changing and expanding purposes for reading. In this chapter, suggestions have been made to help teachers improve their practices at these levels.

The modern high school should continue to offer instruction and guidance in reading (14, 23). And every teacher should participate in the program. For every teacher is, to some extent at least, a teacher of reading. Moreover, teachers of every subject field should recognize the following reading problems as common to their areas of instruction: (1) vocabulary development, (2) concept building, (3) critical reading, (4) organizing information and facts, and (5) selecting collateral reading and related source materials.

The author of this book has indicated, in other sources, that significant work upon the above problems has been undertaken by classroom teachers who are stressing the special vocabularies of their subject fields and who are providing diversified reading materials to meet individual needs (23). These teachers are giving essential help by studying the vocabulary loads of different assignments and by providing preliminary explanation or experience to ease the burden occasioned by unfamiliar terms; by detecting and correcting inaccurate or distorted concepts; by using discussion techniques to assure understanding; and by employing direct experience, pictorial presentations, and wide reading to foster clear comprehension.

Teachers in the content fields are also providing a wide variety of reading materials on different levels of difficulty. They are assembling a wide range of materials of varied difficulty from pamphlets, magazines, inexpensive editions of books, and other sources. They are helped in this quest by the use of recently compiled lists of books. For example, Glenn M. Blair cites the one hundred books most enjoyed by retarded readers in senior high schools and includes other lists of distinct helpfulness (3). Witty and Kopel also offer suggestions for obtaining suitable and varied reading materials for high school students. (22)

Thus it is possible for every teacher, after ascertaining the range of ability within a class, to secure suitable reading matter and in other ways to promote growth in reading power. Increasingly, the responsibility for teaching high school pupils how to read different kinds of materials is being assumed by teachers in the content field.

It is evident that there is a need for remedial reading as a temporary expedient in the junior and senior high school. One of the most significant aspects of modern remedial programs is the attention thus made possible to the needs of individuals and small groups. It should be pointed out that, wherever possible, *individual* guidance and help should be given to the poor reader. In every attempt to offer assistance, there should be a conscientious effort to diagnose carefully the reading levels and needs of the pupils, to provide useful and stimulating materials, and to offer systematic instruction for a long enough time to assure improvement. In some public schools it seems necessary to hold daily remedial classes for at least one semester and to continue with less frequent instructional periods for another semester or two. Under these conditions, high school students almost invariably improve their ability to read for many important purposes.

The author of this book desires to reiterate his conviction that the provision of remedial reading is inadequate to meet the needs of high school students. This point of view was endorsed by the committee which prepared the Forty-seventh Yearbook, Part II, of the National Society for the Study of Education, *Reading in the High School and College* (23). It was indicated that the largest problem in the modern high school grows out of the new and varied purposes for which youth must read. Accordingly, what is needed is a unified

effort throughout the entire high school to promote the reading development of every student. School-wide developmental programs, built and conducted through the cooperative efforts of all teachers, are the only sound means for assuring the maximum reading growth of every student.

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The Correction and Prevention of Reading Difficulties among High School Students

DURING the past two or three decades, studies of the reading ability of high school pupils have disclosed an ever increasing amount of overlapping of scores from grade to grade. Investigations reveal also an increase in the amount of extremely poor reading. (7)

STUDIES OF READING RETARDATION

The condition now existing among junior high school pupils is suggested by the following analysis. In June 1943, and again in January 1944, all graduates from the eighth grade classes of the St. Louis schools were given the *Traxler Silent Reading Tests* (11). Table XVII shows the distribution of scores. Of 7380 pupils tested, 2169 read at or below the norm for the sixth grade. It should be noted that 491 pupils made scores which placed them at or below the fourth grade norm; while the ratings of 2948 fell within the norms for grades V, VI, and VII. It is significant also that there were many high scores, including those of 968 pupils whose attainment reached or exceeded the eleventh grade norm.

A wide range in ability and a large amount of reading retardation will also be found in every class throughout the senior high school. These facts are revealed clearly by Table XVIII, which presents the results of the *Iowa Silent Reading Tests* given to 9672 high school students (23). It will be seen in Table XVIII that although the median scores increase from grade IX to grade XII, the amount of over-

TABLE XVII
DISTRIBUTION OF READING ABILITIES OF EIGHTH GRADE GRADUATES
IN THE ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI, SCHOOLS (11)

<i>Grade Norm Attained June 1943 and January 1944 Classes</i>	
Below 4 grade	138
4 "	353
5 "	672
6 "	1006
7 "	1270
8 "	1032
9 "	1121
10 "	820
11 "	497
12 "	286
13 " and above	185
	<u>7380</u>

lapping from grade to grade is large. Accordingly, in all grades, there are many pupils of similar reading ability. This table also reveals a high frequency of reading retardation — a condition which has frequently been stressed by students of education. Without doubt, this condition is serious and significant. But it should be pointed out that reading retardation is only one aspect of the reading problem. Extremely high scores in reading merit consideration too. For example, Table XVIII shows that 152 ninth grade pupils reach or exceed the median for the twelfth grade.

There are striking differences between the average reading scores of the grades or classes in which these high school pupils are found. Table XIX shows median scores for more than three hundred classes distributed throughout grades IX to XII. Here one notes the wide range in median scores. These data reveal another problem presented by the heterogeneous population of the modern high school. Not only are there large differences in reading abilities within classes, but there is also such great variability in the average attainments of different classes that materials and experiences selected to be employed by the *typical* class of freshmen, sophomores, juniors, or seniors would be much too easy for some classes and far too difficult for others of the same grade designation.

CAUSES OF POOR READING

The studies cited in the preceding paragraphs suggest the extent of reading retardation in the modern high school. Administrators, supervisors, and teachers are becoming generally aware of the prob-

TABLE XVIII

DISTRIBUTIONS OF SCORES ON THE IOWA SILENT READING TEST OF
9672 STUDENTS IN INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS PARTICIPATING IN
FALL TESTING PROGRAM, 1946
(Adapted from Traxler, 23)

Score	PUPIL SCORES				Score	Grade 9	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12
	Grade 9	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12					
218			1		158	101	64	41	19
216			1	2	156	100	61	33	10
214	1	3	3	11	154	91	61	39	10
212		3	14	27	152	61	22	21	11
210	1	7	11	21	150	75	34	18	9
208		11	44	101	148	31	12	9	1
206	2	6	26	53	146	23	6	4	1
204	4	16	35	77	144	25	26	10	1
202	9	27	75	118	142	31	18	6	2
200	9	29	88	106	140	17	7	7	
198	8	47	82	99	138	3	2	4	1
196	20	61	107	113	136	12			
194	10	22	42	37	134	18	10	6	2
192	20	57	113	134	132		1		1
190	31	79	140	147	130	3	1	1	1
188	37	72	118	120-Md.	128				
186	35	74	104	99	126	5	1		
184	63	129	201	184	124	2	1	1	1
182	39	61	93-Md.	61	122			1	
180	110	185	233	178	120				
178	88	117	124	107	118				
176	104	123-Md.	144	117	116	1			
174	86	143	156	91-Norm	TOTAL	2107	2373	2778	2414
172	91	92	103	60	Q3	177.2	184.8	191.3	198.2
170	80	86	70-Norm	50	Md.	167.9	175.2	181.2	187.2
168	201-Md.	193	175	79	Q1	158.6	165.3	171.3	177.7
166	83	86-Norm	60	30	Range	117-215	125-215	122-219	125-217
164	154	142	113	63	Schools	88	80	80	76
162	126-Norm	101	65	33					
160	90	74	36	26					

lem created by the presence of increasingly large numbers of students unequipped to meet the reading demands in various subject areas. In fact, many teachers consider that reading retardation con-

TABLE XIX

DISTRIBUTIONS OF CLASS MEDIANS ON THE IOWA SILENT READING
TEST OF 307 CLASSES PARTICIPATING IN FALL TESTING
PROGRAM, 1946

(Adapted from Traxler, 23)

Score	CLASS MEDIANS			
	Grade 9	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12
200				
198				2
196				3
194				1
192			1	8
190		1	5	5
188		1	8	9
186		1	3	14-Md.
184	1	3	9	11
182		2	5-Md.	2
180	1	8	19	8
178		9	8	6
176	3	12-Md.	4	3
174	4	8	7	1-Norm
172	9	5	1	
170	5	8	1-Norm	
168	16-Md.	10	1	
166	8	1-Norm	1	
164	14	1	1	1
162	10-Norm	4		
160	8	1		
158	1	2		
156				
154	1			
152	1			
150				
<hr/>				
TOTAL	82	77	74	74
<hr/>				
Md.	167.5	175.6	181.4	186.7
Range	152.5-185.0	159.3-191.0	165.3-193.0	165.5-198.3

stitutes the greatest obstacle to effective instruction in the high school.

Because of the magnitude of the problem, classroom teachers frequently turn to published accounts of reading retardation hoping to gain a better understanding of its causes and to secure suggestions for corrective work. Many of them are greatly discouraged by some newspaper and magazine articles devoted to the causes of reading failure. They find that these presentations frequently reflect a "defeatist" attitude or a point of view which is contrary to their own experience and observation.

A number of these teachers have sought the counsel of the author of this book. One teacher inquired: "Are one third of high school pupils nonverbal? Is it valid to state that this group cannot learn to read?" Another asked: "I have read that many poor readers, referred to as cases of acquired dyslexia, are harmed by instruction in reading. Should reading instruction be abandoned when poor reading appears?"

In articles which provoke such anxiety, the authors frequently state or imply that the chief cause of poor reading (dyslexia) resides in one or more of the following items:

- Inability to secure a visual image (nonverbal types)
- Mixed eye-hand and other dominance problems
- Eye difficulties (imbalance of eye muscles)
- Faulty eye movement and motor coordination

Less frequently stressed are emotional factors, home conditions and family relations, poor teaching, inappropriate or untimely instruction, inadequate teaching materials, and differences in children's rates of growth.

NONVERBAL PUPILS

Typically, the popular article offers a simple explanation of the condition referred to as dyslexia; for example, George H. Henry in *Harper's*, January 1946, states that one third of all high school pupils are "nonverbal"; they "are incapable of mastering the stock tools of learning (reading and writing) well enough to profit from textbook instruction." They "cannot read on a fifth grade level or write a coherent paragraph reasonably free of errors." Yet they are "normal, wholesome, even talented, responsible youth" who

constitute about two and one half million of the six and two thirds million high school boys and girls in this country. They should not be confused with the mentally backward; they are simply the "non-verbal third" of the modern high school. "No method and no brilliance of teaching can improve these youths enough to make any appreciable difference in their literacy," says Henry. (8, p. 72)

A similar point has been expressed again and again in other recent articles. For example, in *Hygeia* (September 1947) one writer states that some children are "nonverbal" or "thing-minded" (12). These children are "often talented in music, arithmetic, science, manual arts, or mechanics" (12, p. 697). They find great difficulty in our schools, most of which are planned for the "language-minded" child.

There are, of course, many poor readers in our secondary schools. The number is not so high as the sensational figures given by Henry. Nor is the retardation in reading so severe or so great. Evidence is lacking to substantiate the assertion that one third of our high school pupils "cannot read on a fifth grade level." Instead, the per cent of ninth grade pupils whose test scores fall below the seventh grade norms on reading tests may be fifteen or twenty. Furthermore, little support is found in scientific studies for the assumption that poor readers can be classified into types such as the visual-minded, the motor-minded, and so forth. Yet in some of the recent popular articles it is pointed out or assumed that one large group of children, the motor-minded, are lacking in the ability to perceive visual images. Hence they cannot learn to read effectively when materials are presented through the usual visual approach. Concerning this point of view, Arthur I. Gates in the 1947 revision of *The Improvement of Reading* states:

That individual differences in the use of different types of imagery, such as visual imagery, auditory imagery, kinesthetic imagery, do exist, has long been known. A half century ago the study of mental imagery was actively pursued by psychologists. A quarter of a century ago there was a tendency for psychologists to explore the mental imagery as a possible basis for explaining reading deficiencies. The literature, especially the older publications, contains many instances in which a pupil's difficulty was believed to be due to weakness of auditory or visual imagery.

This policy is rarely pursued at the present time. In the first place, diagnosis of imagery is exceedingly difficult and unreliable. Most examiners, even those with thorough psychological training, are doubtful of the validity of any diagnosis of the imagery of children. . . . The process is too uncertain and too difficult to be employed by any but the highly specialized psychologist in diagnosing reading difficulties. The majority of specialists in reading believe that the deficiencies alleged to be based upon limitations in imagery are much more probably deficiencies in techniques or ways of working. (6, pp. 105-106)

That poor readers generally are motor-minded or are lacking in the ability to use visual imagery is disproved by the remarkable demonstration of learning by men in the Army. In the program developed for Special Training Units (which will be described later in this chapter), the visual approach was used; moreover, the men did learn to read with unparalleled efficiency. There was no evidence that this group was "nonverbal." Unusually effective also have been remedial reading programs in the elementary and secondary school, which have employed approaches similar to those utilized in the Army. One of these programs will also be described. Apparently the statement by Henry that "no method and no brilliance of teaching" can make any difference in the literacy of extremely poor readers is unsound, as is the assertion that one third of our high school population is "nonverbal."

MIXED EYE-HAND DOMINANCE PROBLEMS

Writers of widely read magazine articles assert that in addition to "nonverbal" pupils, there is another clearly defined class of poor readers. This group is said to demonstrate a specific difficulty known as "strephosymbolia" (twisted symbols). Children in this group "can be distinguished from the nonverbal child by their ability to express themselves orally and their interest in stories read to them. . . . they frequently have a history of mixed dominance." However, it is held that: "Children with this reading difficulty can be taught to read" (12, p. 697). In this respect, they are unlike the group of "nonverbal" or "thing-minded" pupils. This differentiation is made in an article which appeared in *Hygeia*. (12)

In the November 1947 issue of *Coronet* (4) it is stated that, after

Pearl Harbor, 1,000,000 men were rejected or specially classified in the Army because of dyslexia. One characteristic of individuals who are considered to be cases of developmental dyslexia is their tendency to make reversals in reading. For example, they read *was* as *saw*, or *on* as *no*. According to Bender, children so afflicted "‘see’ all right, but they confuse similarly shaped letters like *o*, *e*, *c*, or *b*, *h*, *n*" (2, p. 300). They often reverse letters. In fact, the most common type of error is the tendency to reverse letters.

Thus, one finds a tendency to emphasize mixed eye-hand dominance and other irregularities as causes of poor reading. The child so afflicted is said to make a number of symptomatic responses of which the most conspicuous is a tendency to reverse the order of letters in certain words. This theory has been the subject of careful investigation during the past two decades. In 1935, a committee for the National Conference on Research in Elementary School English published abstracts of studies containing suggestions for the analysis of reading disability. Four of the studies dealt with dominance; they revealed little or no relationship between reversal errors and mixed hand-eye dominance. Such studies lead one to question the validity of the recent assertion that reversal tendency is the most common symptom of dyslexia, or poor reading. Nor do these earlier investigations stand alone. They are supported by more recent studies in which it has been shown that pupils who are mixed in dominance do *not* show a tendency to make reversals with unusual frequency.

DOMINANCE PROBLEMS AMONG GOOD AND POOR READERS IN SCHOOL

The following study and its results are typical of careful investigations related to the prevalence of mixed eye-hand dominance and reversal tendencies among poor readers.

The author, working with Dr. David Kopel, selected the one hundred poorest readers in grades III to VI of the Evanston, Illinois, schools and compared them with a group of good readers (19). A systematic appraisal of the psychological functions underlying vision was made for both groups. Various phases of laterality were measured. Children showing mixed dominance were selected in both the good and the poor reading groups and their tendency to make reversals was investigated. The poor readers made more reversals

than the good readers; however, children of mixed dominance within the group of poor readers made no more reversals than did the others. Among the good readers, reversals were few; it is noteworthy also that children mixed in dominance made the same average number of reversals as did the other pupils. Reversals, therefore, appear to be merely symptoms of poor reading, and are usually unassociated with mixed dominance. Furthermore, left-handedness, left-eyedness, and various other conditions of hand and eye dominance were found to be unrelated to reversal tendency.

The relationship between mixed eye-hand dominance and reversal tendency is treated by Gates, who states: "Since right-handed writing is far more common than left, and left-eyedness is fairly frequent, it would be expected that a combination of left-eye and right-hand dominance would be more frequent than right-eye and left-hand dominance" (6, p. 310). In this more common type of mixed eye-hand dominance, reversal tendencies are to be found with slightly greater frequency than among subjects relatively free of this tendency (6). Concerning other types of mixed eye-hand dominance, Gates continues: "In the present writer's twenty-six cases of extreme reversals there was one mixed sinistral and the same number among the nonreversals with one case of mixed-handedness combined with right-eye dominance. This type of mixture is thus neither frequent nor significant in relation to reading difficulty." (6, p. 311)

In conclusion, Gates stresses the fact that "left-handedness, left-eyedness, and mixed eye and hand dominance are possible but doubtful, and at most slightly influential factors." (6, p. 313)

Despite the foregoing type of evidence, writers continue to stress two types of pupils — the "nonverbal" and the type suffering from "acquired dyslexia." The latter are alleged to suffer from disturbance in the cortex traceable to physiological irregularities set up by conditions such as mixed eye-hand dominance. It should be emphasized that some scientists question the validity of this concept. In the *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, George A. Kelly concludes: "There is no known check on cerebral dominance which is sufficiently dependable to enable one to investigate the influence of that factor on the perception of the orientation of symbols" (10, p. 212). And Gates, in his 1947 revision of *The Improvement of Reading*, states: "The idea that confused brain dominance or lack of

dominance should be the cause of such reading difficulties was considered too speculative to be serviceable." (6, p. 313)

EYE-MUSCLE IMBALANCE AND FUSION IRREGULARITIES

The tendency to emphasize a single factor as a cause may be found again and again in the literature dealing with poor reading. It is found not only in articles published in widely read magazines such as *Harper's*, *Coronet*, and *Hygeia*, but it appears also in the accounts in scientific journals. In fact, the article in the former type of magazine is frequently simply an interpretation of a report found in some scientific journal. However, the popular account sometimes exaggerates the findings and typically neglects to indicate the highly controversial nature of the results.

The studies cited in the foregoing paragraphs show the falsity of the assumption that most poor readers are afflicted by mixed eye-hand dominance. Nor can they be characterized validly as "non-verbal" in nature. Other "causes" have been stressed from time to time. For example, faulty eye movements and visual irregularities have been cited as outstanding causes of poor reading. At one time, certain investigators asserted that ninety per cent or more of poor readers showed muscle imbalance or fusion irregularity. Careful studies revealed, however, that there was by no means such a high percentage of visual defects among poor readers (19). In some studies, muscle imbalance and fusion irregularity were found as frequently in groups of good readers as in groups of poor readers. Of course, muscle imbalance may be an important factor contributing to poor reading in the case of a particular child, but the significant fact to bear in mind is that one cannot differentiate groups of good from poor readers on the basis of a much higher frequency of muscle imbalance (19). Therefore, this condition is no longer referred to as an important single cause of poor reading. Nor is it found with the high frequency previously reported.

FAULTY EYE MOVEMENTS AS GENERAL CAUSES OF POOR READING

For many years, psychologists have recognized the fact that poor readers generally make irregular eye movements. The good reader makes few fixation pauses as his eyes move from the beginning to the end of a line of print, while the poor reader makes many more

fixations per line. Some educators have assumed that the eye movement is a significant factor in causing poor reading. Accordingly, devices and machines have been developed to cultivate rhythmic eye movements and to improve the speed of reading. Samuel Renshaw (14) reports improvement in reading skill by use of tachistoscopic methods in which rapid perception of words and phrases is stressed.

One such instrument, the Metronoscope, is designed to expose each of three parts of lines of print in succession; the speed of exposure is gradually increased as the pupil improves his rate of silent reading by learning to read the materials thus presented rhythmically and with few fixations.

The work of investigators who use devices such as the Metronoscope to provide eye drills has been widely publicized. It is assumed by many readers of popular magazine articles that these devices have been proved to have validity and general usefulness. Of course, the poor reader does make an unnecessarily large number of fixation pauses per line. However, when he is given an opportunity to read much interesting material, chosen in accord with his ability, and increased and adapted to meet his improved status during a remedial program, his eye movements almost invariably improve and the number of fixation pauses decreases (6, 19). But may not this process be accelerated by judicious use of pacing devices such as the Metronoscope? Several experiments suggest that little is gained by the use of such devices (5). For example, Cason studied three groups of third grade children. One group was provided with specially prepared materials to emphasize phrasing by underlining, vertical marks, and spacing. A second group received a type of training in which the Metronoscope played an important role. A control group of pupils read books of their own choosing from the classroom libraries and recorded titles and selections read. Cason concludes:

There were no important differences between the groups having the opportunity for special practice in reading phrases and for eye movement training provided especially by the Metronoscope and the equated groups in the same school spending an equal amount of time in free library reading. This was true of the standardized reading test which measured speed, level of comprehension, and accuracy on the speed test, of the special tests of

ability to read phrases, of the measurement of eye movements, and of the test on the Metronoscope. In the groups studied, and under the conditions of the experiment, the measurements made did not show that any clear-cut gains were produced in the reading process by the reading programs stressing the mechanics of reading that were not secured by free library reading. (5, p. 67)

Another study, by Frederick L. Westover, dealt with two groups of poor readers in college (16). Both were given remedial work, but one group had additional drills with "a very ingenious exposure device which enables an individual to adjust speed and other features to his particular needs more exactly than is possible with the Metronoscope. He obtained results with college students similar to those obtained by Cason with third grade pupils." (6, p. 354)

Another investigator, Miles A. Tinker, points out:

. . . eye movement patterns do not cause, but merely reflect efficient or poor reading performance.

The implications of these conclusions for diagnostic and remedial reading are clear. The measurement of eye movements, which requires elaborate apparatus and is costly if done accurately, may be dispensed with in the reading clinic. In the remedial treatment the training or "pacing" of eye movements may be omitted without lessening the effectiveness of the instruction. (15, p. 148)

As a result of an evaluation of the above studies and others, Gates concludes:

In general, the elaborate mechanical devices should be regarded as last resorts to be used when other methods have failed or when there is some tangible reason for selecting them at an earlier stage. (6, p. 354)

Mechanical devices may be useful in certain cases of reading disability; but research indicates that such devices cannot supplant well written, interesting, and individually suitable printed material.

COMPLEXITY OF READING RETARDATION

The reason for the failure of simple panaceas to aid poor readers will become clear if one examines the complex array of factors found in the case of poor readers. The author of this book recently (1947) published an analysis of the characteristics of one hundred very

poor readers from high schools (17). Scores on silent reading tests disclosed the low general status of the group. Ten types of incorrect or faulty habits were set forth and consideration was then given to other contributing factors.

In these one hundred poor readers, the following physical conditions were noted:

	<i>Per Cent</i>
Defective vision	14
Generally poor physical condition	12
Left-handedness	4
Defective hearing	3

It might be assumed that correction of physical defects would lead to improvement in reading. For example, the defects in vision could readily have been corrected in most of these cases, but it would be fallacious to infer that this remedy would have provided the cure for the poor reading. Each of these students displayed a particular combination of reading difficulties, and hence required a program of re-education adapted to his specific needs. However, there were certain factors which appeared in many cases. As a group, the pupils gave little attention to details while reading, and they did not comprehend materials as total units of thought. They were inclined to read almost any assignment in a perfunctory manner, showing little or no tendency to try to understand it as a whole. Furthermore, they were conspicuously lacking in the capacity to deal with the new vocabulary found in various subject fields.

There were other contributing factors which were revealed through a study of the attitudes and behavior of the pupils. The following analysis of these one hundred poor readers shows the frequency of certain characteristics related to attitude and to home conditions:

	<i>Per Cent</i>
Lack of interest in reading	82
Indifference to reading	44
Dislike for reading	43
Emotional maladjustment	42
Problems of conflict in home	40

Lack of interest in, dislike for, or indifference toward reading are indeed conspicuous characteristics of these poor readers. Other defects complicate every case, but seriously retarded readers in the

secondary school usually display one or more of these attitudes. Attention to attitude, therefore, is a significant need. Although attitude is of extreme importance, it alone cannot be considered the cause of reading retardation. Nor can emotional maladjustment or home conditions, although these factors appear frequently among poor readers. For example, one ninth grade boy expressed a strong aversion to reading; he stated that he had read nothing during the preceding year unless he had been compelled to do so. But this boy had changed schools three times during a single year; his vocabulary (*Stanford Achievement Test*) was at 6.9 grade level. Although his intelligence quotient fell in the category designated as "normal," he was flighty in attention, undependable, and seemed almost incapable of organizing and applying the facts he knew. This array illustrates a combination of attitudes and problems which is found in pupils who read poorly. (17)

Consideration of possible origin of these disturbances makes clear the important role played by failure to succeed. For these pupils, reading had been a discouraging or profitless task which seldom resulted in a complete, satisfying experience. Moreover, the home and the school frequently neglected to offer recognition and praise which all children need. Instead, incompetency and failure were emphasized. To be effective, therefore, a remedial program should be based on a thorough knowledge of each child; remedial work should be planned according to particular individual needs; and success for each pupil should be assured.

SOME RESULTS OF AN EFFECTIVE REMEDIAL PROGRAM IN READING

A number of comprehensive remedial reading programs have been reported which include thorough diagnosis, systematic guidance, provision of diversified reading materials, and careful evaluation of growth as improvement occurs. Without exception, these group projects have yielded beneficial results. For example, one such program carried on for three semesters in a Chicago high school demonstrated the educability of the poorest readers in the entering class. (19)

The author, working with Dr. David Kopel and the staff of a Chicago high school, developed the following program, which has

been described elsewhere in greater detail (19). Four classes, each enrolling thirty-one pupils, were formed to offer remedial work for the poorest readers entering the ninth grade. All pupils had I.Q.'s above 80; the median I.Q. was 88. On standardized reading tests, all pupils made scores below the norms for grade VII; the median attainment fell at 5.2 grade level.

At the first class meeting, the reading problem was discussed with the pupils. It was frankly indicated that the class as a whole was retarded in reading attainment. But it was also pointed out that great improvement was possible. Attractive reading materials were presented; and their contents were discussed and related to individual interests.

During the first week, the pupils in each group were encouraged to examine and read books and other materials displayed on tables and racks in the classroom. Meanwhile, the teacher interviewed every pupil. Since each class contained thirty-one pupils, it was necessary to employ study periods and other free time for these informal discussions of each pupil's hobbies, preferences, and favorite leisure pursuits. The conferences were guided by the use of the Witty-Kopel Interest Inventory. (See Appendix C.)

Dominant group and individual interests were ascertained, as well as reading experiences and preferences. The responses to a graded book list showed that these pupils had read few books. Moreover, most of these books had not been completed. Accordingly, reading was associated with disappointment and frustration. Naturally, these pupils seldom took books from the library voluntarily.

In the remedial program, structurally simple materials related to the interests of the group were employed. A classroom library was assembled; it included a nucleus of books which had been employed successfully with ninth grade classes of very low reading ability. Additions were made from time to time of books suggested by the pupils, the librarian, and the remedial teachers. Periodicals such as *Young America*, *My Weekly Reader*, *Boys' Life*, *Newsweek*, and the *Reader's Digest* were made available for reading in the classroom. The *Unit Study Books* (now known as *Little Wonder Books*) were employed to provide materials related to topics in the fields of science and social studies. Many other books and pamphlets of approximately sixth grade reading difficulty offered the pupils further

opportunity to develop or extend worthy interests. The classroom was equipped with open bookshelves, racks for booklets, magazine tables, curtains, and attractive pictures.

The program was characterized by an orderly and systematic introduction of materials. First the students expressed their interests, talked about the books they had enjoyed, and indicated the types of stories they would like to read. They also examined books and periodicals. On the following days, assignments from different volumes in a new textbook series were distributed. Each assignment was made in accord with the pupil's expressed interest and his reading ability. For several weeks, specific assignments were made daily. However, additional activities were introduced. On some days periodicals were read, or voluntary reading from the books in the room occurred. On other days, the class was taken to the school library and helped in locating source materials and in finding information related to group or individual interests. A weekly period was devoted to planning. At this time, the author of this book met with the teachers and librarians and discussed the work of the preceding week. A tentative day by day outline was made for the coming week. Thus, the efforts of the different teachers were concentrated on providing reading experiences in an orderly sequence according to changing interests, needs, and abilities.

To evaluate the students' progress, tests were repeated at the end of the first semester and the interest inventory was again administered. Great gains were displayed on standard tests of silent and oral reading. The pupils reported that they enjoyed reading at school, and that they were now finding pleasure in reading at home. Their indifference or antagonism toward reading had been replaced by interest in reading and, in many cases, by real enthusiasm for the satisfactions and values which can be obtained through reading. Improvement was shown, too, in the ability to organize reading content in comprehensive thought patterns, in the capacity to grasp the relationship of new reading acquisitions to past experience, and in the ability to assimilate rather long episodes which call for sustained attention and discrimination (19). Speed in reading showed a gain from a group median of 160 to 270 words a minute. The number of subject failures in other areas was reduced greatly.

The remedial program was not discontinued at the end of the

first semester. A carefully planned sequence of group and individual work was devised for the two semesters which followed. Under these conditions, the large gains obtained during the first semester were extended and reinforced.

The success of the foregoing program demonstrates that large numbers of high school pupils of very low reading ability can be helped to gain competency and pleasure in reading. Obviously, such pupils should not be regarded as "nonverbal," since verbal approaches were used effectively in this remedial program.

THE ARMY PROGRAM FOR ILLITERATE AND NON-ENGLISH-SPEAKING MEN

Another demonstration of the educability of the retarded reader is found in the outstanding success of the Army's program for illiterate soldiers (21, 22). In order to satisfy the need for man power in the Armed Forces, it became necessary to induct large numbers of illiterate and non-English-speaking men. Special Training Units were organized to give these men the academic training they needed to become useful soldiers. The fourth grade level in the three R's was the standard believed to be essential. By applying established principles of education, the Army succeeded in developing an efficient program of education — a program which enabled the average illiterate or non-English-speaking man to acquire in eight weeks' time the basic academic skills needed in Army life. Statistics on the reception centers where the Special Training Units were operated showed that approximately ninety per cent of the men succeeded in reaching acceptable standards.

Most of the men assigned to the Special Training Units came from sections of the country where schools were inadequate. Some had lived in mountainous districts where schools are inaccessible during several months of the year and poor at all times. Others came from the border and coastal states, where immigrant groups sometimes manage to get along by using a very limited amount of English. And some came from the foreign sections of our great cities. In one unit in Texas ninety-five per cent of the trainees were non-English-speaking men of Spanish or Mexican background. But there were trainees from communities where educational opportunities were good and even excellent. Some of these men had been

faced with family needs which made them leave school early. Still others had learned little during their years in school. However, most of these men came from parts of the country where educational opportunity was meager. It should be recalled that it has been estimated that one man in seven in the United States is "functionally illiterate" — the term used to refer to a person less capable in academic skills than the fourth or fifth grade pupil. (22)

Tests were employed to classify the men into one of four groups at the beginning of the training cycle. Critical scores were used to indicate whether the trainee could be expected to succeed at the most elementary level or whether he would be able to follow the work prescribed at more advanced levels. If a trainee started at the first level, he ordinarily finished the program in eight weeks. If he entered the third section, only four weeks were required to complete the course. The men had to be able to attain critical scores on tests of reading, arithmetic, and language ability before leaving a unit. Men who failed to make acceptable scores were separated honorably from the service and returned to civilian life.

Most of these men were eager to learn. "More than anything else, I want to learn to read," said one man. When asked why, he summarized rather fully his reasons as well as those of many of his comrades: "I want to be able to read letters from home. And I want to know what's going on in other places." Finally he added, "I want to be able to read the things the other fellows do."

THE TRAINING PROGRAM FOR FUNCTIONALLY ILLITERATE SOLDIERS

Two programs of education were devised for these men. The first program was designed to enable soldiers to attain roughly a fourth grade standard of literacy and thus to meet satisfactorily the minimum demands of Army life. Accordingly, emphasis was placed upon information and skills which were directly applicable in the daily life of the soldier. The second program aimed to enable men to read and understand simple materials encountered in everyday civilian life. The skills emphasized were those ordinarily taught in grades I through IV in American public schools.

The remarkable success of these programs of special training may be attributed in part to the methods and instructional materials employed. Both materials and methods were functional. In the first

program, all subject matter was presented in the form in which it was most frequently encountered and used in the Army. The *Army Reader* and the *Army Arithmetic*, textbooks for developing basic skills, dealt with life in camp; e.g., taking care of the barracks, making purchases at the PX, and keeping a budget. Filmstrips and other visual aids provided additional functionally useful information; for example, they showed the men how a uniform should be worn, when and how to salute, and so forth. Filmstrips, described fully in Chapter IV, were used also to present the simple sight and speaking vocabulary which the men needed in camp. One filmstrip, *The Story of Private Pete*, introduced the most frequently used nouns, while another, the second part of *Introduction to Language*, was employed to present verbs and prepositions. These filmstrips served a readiness function. They supplied the soldier with a basic stock of sight words which enabled him to begin his work in the *Army Reader* with success and confidence. In addition, they served to introduce several more specialized vocabularies.

Supplementary reading materials offered the men additional reading experience of direct usefulness. For example, one bulletin — *Your Job in the Army* — provided information about the various kinds of jobs they might enter when they completed basic training. A monthly magazine, *Our War*, and a weekly *Newsmap* (special edition for these men) supplied additional information. Both periodicals were profusely illustrated with pictures, charts, maps, and diagrams to assure understanding and to stimulate interest. Not the least important of these items was a comic strip which appeared in every issue of *Our War*. The comic strip dealt with the activities of Private Pete and his friend Daffy. All these materials were written in very simple English. The average difficulty was about that of the typical third grade book.

In Special Training Units the academic work in reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, and oral expression was integrated in natural and related pursuits. About four hours per day were given over to reading, writing, and arithmetic. Four additional hours were devoted daily to military subjects. The teacher of the academic work was also the instructor in military subjects. The military subjects were presented with the same regard for clear communication that characterized the academic work. Thus, specialized vocabularies

were studied in subjects such as sanitation and hygiene, military discipline and courtesy, and rifle marksmanship. Clarity was enhanced further through the use of appropriate visual aids, such as filmstrips, films, and graphic portfolios. Even on the drill field, attention was directed to the giving and timing of commands. In the entire program the acquisition of language skills was a living, vital concern.

The maximum effectiveness of the instructional materials was assured by using them in small classes. The average class contained twelve to fifteen men. In classes of this size, errors and faulty habits could be corrected at the outset, and guidance and encouragement could be offered according to the varied needs found within every group.

The teachers in Special Training Units were enlisted men who had had considerable professional and academic training; some had taught in public schools or in colleges. Comparatively few were specifically trained for, or experienced in, teaching adult illiterates. The materials already mentioned, as well as teachers' guides and suggestions for the presentation of specific subjects, were provided for them. However, these teachers adapted and extended the instructional materials.

Perhaps the most important contribution of the teachers was found in the attitude they brought to their work. They emphasized success and steady progress; they expected every man to learn effectively and rapidly. This attitude spread to the men, who came to believe in their ability to learn. Thus the cycle began and continued; success brought confidence, and confidence brought success.

Two other factors certainly contributed to the effectiveness of the program as well as to the mental health of the men. The Special Training Unit offered many of these men a better environment from the standpoint of physical hygiene than they had ever known; and the opportunities for learning permitted the men to make steady progress and experience satisfactions that accompany successful effort.

LITERACY TRAINING FOR CIVILIAN LIFE

The second program was articulated around a basic textbook, *Meet Private Pete*. This program was designed as a basic course for illiterate men who had not attended Special Training Units, as

well as a refresher course for those who had completed the Army's program. The central character in the materials is Private Pete; with him are Daffy, Joe, Bill, and other typical soldiers. In Part I of *Meet Private Pete*, the reader follows the men throughout their last day in camp; Part II relates their activities on shipboard; and Part III relates experiences of the group in New York, Chicago, and Kansas City. Finally, in Part IV, Private Pete is home in Smithtown, Kansas, where he is visited by some of his friends.

About 1000 of the 1475 words in the W.P.A. list were used and other widely used words were added in constructing the list of approximately 1400 words which are employed in the textbook *Meet Private Pete*.^{*} The words are grouped on four levels; level one contains 283 words; on levels two, three, and four there are 312, 384, and 411 words respectively.

In the teacher's guide, there are forty lesson plans in which each lesson proceeds according to the following steps:

1. Reading the textbook and studying the illustrations
2. Using flash cards and other devices for presenting new words
3. Using the practice book

Illustrations throughout the books were made from photographs of a group of soldiers selected to portray Pete and his friends. In the first stages of instruction, every picture is studied in detail. Such study arouses interest through personalizing the text, and aids in vocabulary development.

After the text of the lesson is read, flash cards are used to develop the accurate and rapid recognition of the 283 words used in chapters I and II of the reader. Then the text is again studied before the practice book is introduced.

The practice book, *Learning to Read*, provides five repetitions for each of the 283 words on level one. Exercises are included to offer three or four repetitions for most of the words on levels two, three, and four. The practice book also contains exercises to develop other basic skills and to sustain interest in reading.

^{*} The W.P.A. list was made from twenty-three widely used lists for teaching adult illiterates; in constructing the list used in *Meet Private Pete*, about 1000 words from the W.P.A. list formed the structure to which words were added at each of the four levels. These words were chosen from lists such as those of Thorndike-Lorge and Edgar Dale. (See Chapter IV.)

The following reading skills receive emphasis in the practice book:

1. Recognizing and understanding a basic stock of sight words
2. Deriving meanings of new words from context
3. Developing and enriching word meaning
4. Reading to follow directions
5. Reading to note details
6. Reading to get specific information
7. Reading of related items in whole meaningful episodes
8. Analyzing words and building concepts

The practice book includes exercises to develop the ability to write letters and other compositions. In addition, it contains fifteen lessons presenting original information and descriptive episodes related to the story in *Meet Private Pete*. Every episode is designed for use in emphasizing one or more of the above skills. In addition to the basic reader, an *Arithmetic for Everyday Life* was developed to provide the men with the skills needed in meeting the recurring number of problems of civilian life.

All suggestions, recommendations, and lesson plans for this program are found in a single manual, *Instructor's Guide and Lesson Plans for Literacy Training*. These detailed presentations were planned for use by instructors who did not have an opportunity to attend troop schools of the type operated for teachers in Special Training Units. In many other respects, the programs were similar. Both programs have proved remarkably efficient.

The Army educational program has demonstrated the capacity of the masses for learning and it has renewed our faith in education. The problem that lies ahead is one of devising an educational scheme comprehensive enough to serve every boy and girl in America. This is, of course, the first move in equalizing educational opportunity. The second implies the development of curricula which are designed to equip boys and girls for intelligent citizenship. A necessary correlate to this basic program is the provision of educational opportunities for all "undereducated" American adults. This includes not only the veterans, but also all other men and women who are functionally illiterate. It may be said that such a program will prove costly. It is well to recall that ignorance, delinquency, and unrest are associated with lack of education and social inequality. Education is, of course, not a panacea, but it offers an important guarantee

against chaos and destruction in a world where the understanding and maintenance of democratic values and the control of scientific inventions and discoveries are imperative for survival.

The Army program is significant not only in showing the principles which underlie successful instruction of illiterates, but also in suggesting basically sound principles of learning which can be employed in all educational effort.

First, the Army program has demonstrated the values of clear objectives and specific purposes. In Special Training Units, the objectives in every subject were clearly defined. Steps in their attainment were outlined and objective tests were used to check progress at regular intervals.

Second, the work in Special Training Units has shown the importance of strong interest and motive. Illiterate men in the Army welcomed an opportunity to learn the three R's in order to read and write letters, to keep informed about what was taking place on the fighting fronts, and to enjoy reading experiences with their comrades. These strong motives were carefully considered in designing instructional materials.

Third, the Army program has demonstrated the value of using systematic appraisals to estimate needs, determine guidance, and evaluate growth.

Fourth, the Army program has shown the validity of employing functional methods and materials in promoting maximum learning. Illiterates and non-English-speaking men were able to acquire the literacy skills needed by the soldier in the astonishingly short period of eight weeks. Moreover, the salvage rate of these units advanced progressively with the development and application of the functional approach.

Fifth, this program has proved the value of using visual aids to accelerate the learning process. Special Training Units have made extensive use of films, filmstrips, graphic portfolios, and other visual aids.

Sixth, this program has shown the significance of giving special attention to vocabulary growth and to the development of specialized vocabularies. Many of the difficulties in mastering the subject matter in special fields, such as first aid, defense against chemical attack, and so forth, seem to have been obviated by building a

meaningful vocabulary in each subject. In Special Training Units, the cultivation of a meaningful vocabulary has been considered the first step in successful instruction in any subject area.

Seventh, the work in Special Training Units has shown the advantage of integrating and correlating learning activities under conditions conducive to mental health. Instructors taught both military and academic subjects and attempted to present all training materials in such a way that understanding would be clear and unimpaired. The effort to communicate clearly was emphasized in the classroom and on the drill field as well.

Eighth, the work of Special Training Units has demonstrated the value of small classes and the need for adequate instructional materials for all students. The average class contained only twelve to fifteen men. Classrooms were equipped with appropriate instructional aids, and every man was issued the required books and supplementary materials.

Ninth, the program has shown the value of supplementary materials as an important means of promoting the application of skills. Special Training Units issued a weekly newspaper and a monthly magazine to every man. These and other materials were written in simple English and offered opportunity for meaningful practice in developing skills.

Tenth, the Army program has revealed the significance of the well trained instructor working under reasonably hygienic conditions for teaching and learning.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

In this chapter, the causes of the large amount of reading retardation in the secondary school have been examined and the outstanding characteristics of effective remedial programs have been described. In these programs, one finds careful diagnosis of the reading level and needs of the pupils, provision of functionally useful materials of instruction, and systematic instruction over a sufficient period of time to bring about lasting gains. In the Army's program for functionally illiterate men, certain rather narrow goals were achieved in an average period of eight weeks. In the public schools, it seems necessary to have daily sessions of remedial work for one semester at least and to continue with less frequent instructional

periods over another semester or two. Under such conditions, high school students almost invariably make significant gains and develop the ability to use books for many important purposes.

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Attention is called to the following Army materials.

TM 21-500, <i>Army Reader</i>	FS 12-7, <i>Introduction to Language — Nouns</i>
TM 21-510, <i>Army Arithmetic</i>	FS 12-8, <i>Introduction to Language — Verbs and Prepositions</i>
DST-M3, <i>Guide to Instructional Materials for Special Training Units</i>	FS 12-9, <i>The World</i>
FS 12-2, <i>A Soldier's General Orders, Interior Guard Duty</i>	W.D. Pamphlet 20-8, <i>Instruction in Special Training Units</i>
FS 12-3, <i>Military Discipline and Courtesy</i>	W.D. Pamphlet 21-3, <i>Your Job in the Army</i>
FS 12-4, <i>How to Wear Your Uniform</i>	EM 160, <i>Meet Private Pete</i>
FS 12-5, <i>The Story of Private Pete</i>	EM 161, <i>Learning to Read</i>
FS 12-6, <i>Introduction to Numbers</i>	EM 162, <i>Instructor's Guide and Lesson Plans for Literacy Training</i>
	EM 163, <i>Arithmetic for Everyday Life</i>

The *Army Reader* and *Army Arithmetic* were distributed through the Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. All other technical materials, guides, and filmstrips were distributed within the War Department. Educational manuals were distributed through the United States Armed Forces Institute, Madison, Wis.

❧ CHAPTER VIII ❧

Evaluation and Guidance of Growth in Reading

IN order to guide and direct the learning process most effectively it is necessary to know, from time to time, the amount and character of gains. In the field of reading, however, accurate and comprehensive measures of progress are difficult to obtain. At one time educators accepted, with little question, the results of standardized tests as valid indicators of reading status. Accordingly, initial and final test scores were compared and gains in reading were estimated. As investigators began to question the validity of standard tests, and as the concept of the reading process became more and more comprehensive, this simple practice fell into disfavor. Today, standard test scores are generally viewed as partial and incomplete indicators of reading status. Greater significance is now attached to factors not measured by some tests; for example, the pupil's success in reading different kinds of materials, his attitude toward reading, his reading pattern, the influence of reading on his behavior, and his own evaluation of his status and needs. McGaughy in the following quotation expresses a modern concept of evaluation:

Evaluation is a very different procedure [as contrasted with measurement by standard tests], as the word itself indicates. It consists in judging an object, a procedure, or an institution according to a set of values held by the person who is doing the evaluating. (4, p. 376)

Furthermore,

... we reach the inevitable conclusion that the evaluation of a school program must be done by the same group which deter-

mined the program in the beginning. This evaluation is really an integral part of the planning process, since necessary or desirable changes in the program from period to period must be the result of continuous appraisal of the program in its present workings. (4, p. 377)

The process of evaluation, adequately conceived and applied in the field of reading, will enable the teacher: (1) to ascertain the child's present level of ability and attainment; (2) to estimate the amount, rate, and quality of learning; and (3) to offer effective guidance and direction of future growth.

EVALUATION PROCEDURES

It is obvious that diagnosis, guidance, and appraisal should be considered closely related phases of reading instruction. Only when the teacher knows rather thoroughly each child's beginning status, can progress be estimated accurately. Successful teachers of reading are therefore devoting the first few weeks of the school year to a study of each child. The techniques used at this time are similar to those repeated at a later time to judge the amount of growth. It is desirable to record the findings systematically so that they can be used in formulating objectives, in planning guidance, and in estimating progress.

Many teachers have employed simple record forms on which to enter the results of their initial study of the child. The information thus recorded may be supplemented from time to time by observations made in the classroom, on the playground, and elsewhere. Periodically — perhaps once a month or bimonthly — these teachers examine and compare test results and other entries. In this way, evaluation contributes important insights concerning children's changing needs. Thus the process continues: diagnosis, guidance, appraisal — and further diagnosis, further guidance, further appraisal — an unending cycle.

In the evaluation process, it is desirable to estimate from time to time the nature and extent of gains. Toward the end of a term and again toward the end of the year, the teacher may profitably inquire: To what extent have goals been attained, and to what extent has each child improved? This process may involve the use of standardized tests or other aids not employed in the continuous evalua-

tion which has taken place from week to week or month to month. However, this end-of-the-term evaluation is never a new enterprise, but rather a summation closely related to all previous efforts.

OBSERVATION BY TEACHERS

Valid measures of growth are difficult to obtain. Nevertheless, there are fairly dependable indicators which the teacher may employ. In the first place, the pupil's progress in developing effective habits and skills can be estimated rather reliably by testing and observation; second, improvement in the pupil's reading habits and tastes can be judged by reference to his reading record; and third, the pupil's growth as an effective personality can be appraised by the use of various records of personality development. With older pupils especially, the teacher may utilize the student's own evaluation.

From day to day, the teacher seeks evidence of improvement in reading and in personality. Notes should be made of reading needs; anecdotal records may be employed; parts of interest inventories may be used; and check lists may be administered. In schools of today, the variety of materials used for reading instruction necessitates a variety of means to evaluate progress.

THE INTEREST INVENTORY

The value of utilizing children's interests in developmental reading programs has been emphasized in previous chapters. And several methods of studying boys and girls have been proposed. The Witty-Kopel Inventory of Interests and Activities was one of the pioneer efforts in this field. (See Appendix C.) The teacher will find that this inventory is used to best advantage during informal interviews when she discusses with each child his favored play activities, his vocational ambition, his wishes and personal problems, his attitudes toward home and school, his movie and radio preferences, and his reading experiences. Regardless of whether or not an inventory is used, the teacher will desire to obtain such information by some method. An inventory offers a convenient device for recording such data, as well as a guide to guarantee that significant areas of growth are not overlooked.

Among the items found in the Witty-Kopel Inventory are some which pertain to the child's activities after school, on Saturdays,

and on Sundays and holidays. Inquiry is made also concerning the pupil's best friends and his relationships with his siblings, his family, and his peers. Since interests may be reflected also by the pupil's leisure activities, it is suggested that the teacher ascertain by means of a discussion with each pupil his possessions, tools, pets, materials in a workshop at home, and so forth.

Experience also affects or determines interests; accordingly, study is directed to the pupil's visits to the neighboring art gallery, the zoo, near-by parks, and other places of local importance. The kind and extent of travel are also investigated.

Considerable attention is given to the child's personal problems. His wishes are studied, his vocational ambitions and preferences are ascertained, and the nature of his adjustment in and out of school is estimated by his responses during the interview.

Play preferences and habits may be investigated by utilization of a list of play activities. The list in the Witty-Kopel Inventory was based on a concept of play developed by Lehman and Witty in which play was regarded as "any activity in which a child took part simply because he wanted to do so." The original list was the result of an investigation by Witty and Kopel of the play activities of several thousand elementary school children during the years 1934-1936. The revised list which follows was constructed in 1946 after interviews with almost one thousand additional boys and girls in the Chicago area. The activities are arranged roughly in the order of frequency of mention by the entire group.

LIST OF PLAY ACTIVITIES

(Compiled by Witty and Coomer)

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. Football | 15. Working puzzles |
| 2. Swimming, bathing, or diving | 16. Looking at comic magazines |
| 3. Marbles | 17. Modeling in clay |
| 4. Catch | 18. Writing poems |
| 5. Guns | 19. Playing with dolls |
| 6. Drawing or painting | 20. Playing with paper dolls |
| 7. Going to the woods, park, or country | 21. Playing with a wagon |
| 8. Looking at the Sunday "funnies" | 22. Playing horse |
| 9. Listening to stories | 23. Playing tag |
| 10. Having snowball fights | 24. Playing cowboys and Indians |
| 11. Making snowmen | 25. Playing train |
| 12. Reading books | 26. Playing cops and robbers |
| 13. Doing gymnastics | 27. Climbing trees, monkey bars, or buildings |
| 14. Running races | |

28. Coasting on a sled
29. Playing hide-and-seek
30. Playing in a sand pile
31. Playing softball
32. Playing with blocks
33. Playing house
34. Playing school
35. Skipping or jumping
36. Sliding on the playground or school slide
37. Writing on the blackboard
38. Swinging
39. Playing on a teeter-totter
40. Playing with jacks
41. Playing ring-around-a-rosy
42. Making things
43. Helping mother, father, or teacher
44. Playing baseball with a hard ball
45. Riding a bicycle
46. Ice skating
47. Wrestling
48. Horseback riding
49. Boxing
50. Taking part in track meets
51. Using hammer, saw, and nails
52. Watching athletic sports
53. Flying kites
54. Shooting with bow and arrows
55. Hunting
56. Fishing
57. Going to Cub Scout or Boy Scout meetings
58. Making model airplanes
59. Boating, rowing, or canoeing
60. Experimenting with chemistry set
61. Listening to the radio
62. Roller skating
63. Playing basketball
64. Riding in an automobile
65. Riding in an airplane
66. Going to the movies
67. Playing card games
68. Performing card tricks and "magic" tricks
69. Reading jokes
70. Playing with pets: dog, cat, bird, chickens, rabbits, or others
71. Playing the piano
72. Playing the accordion
73. Playing other musical instruments
74. Going to parties or picnics
75. Sewing, knitting, or crocheting
76. Singing
77. Dancing
78. Gathering flowers
79. Hopscotch
80. Going to Brownie or Girl Scout meetings
81. Dressing up in costumes
82. Just loafing
83. Going on walks or hikes
84. Going to summer camps
85. Making a garden and taking care of it
86. Playing ping-pong
87. Playing checkers
88. Cooking
89. Playing tennis
90. Going shopping
91. Going visiting or sight-seeing
92. Bowling
93. Collecting things

The foregoing list, which may be mimeographed, is presented to a pupil. He is requested to draw a circle around the numbers in front of the activities in which he has taken part during the past two weeks. Provision should be made for the child to record activities not included. When the pupil has completed this task, the teacher should discuss the responses with him. Discussion of favorite activities often reveals worth-while interests which may afford the basis for related reading experience. On the other hand, it occasionally shows the need for the extension or enrichment of experience. It has been found, however, that the typical middle grade child has three or four strong interests which appear again and again during discussions of topics such as favorite books, recreational choices,

vocational ambitions, and movie or radio preferences. Younger pupils also display strong interests.

Thus one boy may express an interest in airplanes; he may state that he wants to be a pilot, that he enjoys reading books about airplanes, and that he has constructed several model airplanes. Another boy may disclose a strong interest in electricity and related subjects, while a girl may demonstrate her desire to paint or engage in other artistic pursuits. Strong interests may also be disclosed by the pupil's informal statements concerning his vocational ambition, his activities in his workshop at home, and his preferences for school subjects. Such interests can readily be used by the teacher as the basis for guiding reading experiences into individually appropriate channels.

Similarly, a book list may be used to help the teacher discover each pupil's reading habits and preferences. The following compilation of favorite books was developed in 1945-1946 as a result of a study of and interviews with more than ten thousand boys and girls. The number before each title indicates the grade level roughly. Recent studies have revealed a range of two or more grades in popularity of many books; hence it is no longer possible to give a single index number, such as one hundred or two hundred, to designate first or second grade level. The numbers used in this table encompass a wider range; e.g., the first two digits of the number 1301 assigned to *Peter Churchmouse* indicate that this book is well liked in grades I to III; the last two digits are added simply to distract the child's attention from the grade placements indicated within the number. Appropriate parts of the list which follows may be mimeographed and used in informal interviews with pupils or as a check list.

CHILDREN'S BOOK LIST

(Compiled by Witty and Coomer)

- | | |
|------|---|
| 1000 | EVERS-EVERS. <i>Crybaby Calf</i> |
| 1001 | HUBER <i>et al.</i> <i>I Know a Story</i> |
| 1200 | ANDERSON. <i>Billy and Blaze</i> |
| 1201 | HEYWARD. <i>The Country Bunny and the Little Gold Shoes</i> |
| 1300 | AUSTIN. <i>Lutie</i> |
| 1301 | ——. <i>Peter Churchmouse</i> |
| 1302 | BANNERMAN. <i>The Story of Little Black Sambo</i> |

- 1303 BESKOW. *Pelle's New Suit*
- 1304 BISHOP. *The Five Chinese Brothers*
- 1305 BRIGHT. *Georgie*
- 1306 BURTON. *Mike Mulligan and His Steam Shovel*
- 1307 DISNEY-BRUMBAUGH. *Donald Duck and His Nephews*
- 1308 FLACK. *Angus and the Ducks*
- 1309 ——. *Ask Mr. Bear*
- 1310 ——. *The Restless Robin*
- 1311 FLACK-WIESE. *The Story about Ping*
- 1312 FRISKEY. *Seven Diving Ducks*
- 1313 GÁG. *Millions of Cats*
- 1314 ——. *Snippy and Snappy*
- 1315 GARRETT. *Angelo, the Naughty One*
- 1316 GEISEL. *And To Think That I Saw It on Mulberry Street*
- 1317 GEMMILL. *Joan Wanted a Kitty*
- 1318 HENRY. *The Little Fellow*
- 1319 LINDMAN. *Flicka, Ricka, Dicka and the Three Kittens*
- 1320 LOWREY. *The Poky Little Puppy*
- 1321 MCCLOSKEY. *Make Way for Ducklings*
- 1322 MCGINLEY. *The Horse Who Lived Upstairs*
- 1323 PAYNE. *Katy No-Pocket*
- 1324 PIPER. *The Little Engine That Could*
- 1325 POTTER. *The Tale of Peter Rabbit*
- 1326 REED (Ed.). *The Golden Book of Fairy Tales*
- 1327 SLOBODKIN. *The Friendly Animals*
- 1400 BURTON. *The Little House*
- 1401 D'AULAIRE-D'AULAIRE. *Don't Count Your Chicks*
- 1402 DE ANGELI. *Yonie Wondernose*
- 1403 HOKE. *Grocery Kitty*
- 1404 LEAF. *The Story of Ferdinand*
- 2300 BEIM-BEIM. *Lucky Pierre*
- 2301 GRAMATKY. *Hercules*
- 2302 ——. *Little Toot*
- 2400 BEMELMANS. *Madeline*
- 2401 BONTEMPS-CONROY. *The Fast Sooner Hound*
- 2402 CARROLL. *Bounce and the Bunnies*
- 2403 DISNEY-BARUCH version of *Pinocchio*
- 2404 GEISEL. *The 500 Hats of Bartholomew Cubbins*
- 2405 HUTCHINSON (Ed.). *Candlelight Stories*
- 2406 NEWELL. *The Little Old Woman Who Used Her Head*
- 2407 TOUSEY. *Jerry and the Pony Express*
- 2408 WELLS. *Peppi the Duck*
- 3400 THURBER. *The Great Quillow*
- 3500 CREDLE. *Little Jeemes Henry*
- 3501 D'AULAIRE-D'AULAIRE. *Wings for Per*

- 3502 DAVIS. *Sandy's Kingdom*
 3503 DISNEY-AYER. *Donald Duck and His Friends*
 3504 DISNEY-EMERSON. *School Days in Disneyville*
 3505 DU BOIS. *The Great Geppy*
 3506 KIVIAT. *Paji*
 3507 LATTIMORE. *Little Pear*
 3508 PERKINS. *The Dutch Twins*
 3509 RAINS. *Lazy Liza Lizard*
 3510 RENICK-RENICK. *Tommy Carries the Ball*
 3600 LAWSON. *Rabbit Hill*
 3700 DISNEY-PURNELL version of *Bambi*
 4500 JĀTAKAS. *Jataka Tales*, retold by Babbitt
 4501 JONES. *Twig*
 4502 THORNE-THOMSEN (Ed.). *East O' the Sun and West O' the Moon*
 4503 THURBER. *Many Moons*
 4504 TOUSEY. *Buffalo Bill*
 4505 WOOD. *Silk and Satin Lane*
 4600 ANDERSEN. *Andersen's Fairy Tales*
 4601 ATWATER-ATWATER. *Mr. Popper's Penguins*
 4602 CARROLL, pseud. *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*
 4603 CRAIK. *The Little Lame Prince*
 4604 EDMONDS. *The Matchlock Gun*
 4605 ESTES. *The Hundred Dresses*
 4606 EYRE. *Star in the Willows*
 4607 GRIMM-GRIMM. *Grimms' Fairy Tales*
 4608 HENDERSON. *Augustus and the River*
 4609 HOLLING. *Paddle-to-the-Sea*
 4610 KALER. *Toby Tyler*
 4611 KIPLING. *Just So Stories*
 4612 LANG (Ed.). *The Blue Fairy Book*
 4613 LOFTING. *The Story of Dr. Dolittle*
 4614 LORENZINI. *The Adventures of Pinocchio*
 4615 LOVELACE. *Betsy-Tacy*
 4616 MCCORMICK. *Paul Bunyan Swings His Axe*
 4617 ORTON. *Mystery at the Little Red School House*
 4618 SEREDY. *A Tree for Peter*
 4619 SEWELL. *Black Beauty*
 4620 SPYRI. *Heidi*
 4700 BROOKS. *Freddy the Detective*
 4701 ENRIGHT. *The Four-Story Mistake*
 4702 ——. *The Saturdays*
 4703 ESTES. *The Moffats*
 4704 HENRY. *Justin Morgan Had a Horse*
 4705 MCCLOSKEY. *Homer Price*
 4706 MCSWIGAN. *Snow Treasure*

- 4707 TRAVERS. *Mary Poppins*
 4800 VINTON. *Laffy of the Navy Salvage Divers*
 5700 AESOP. *The Fables of Aesop*
 5701 HUNT. *Little Girl with Seven Names*
 5702 KIPLING. *The Jungle Book*
 5703 LANE (Ed.). *Arabian Nights' Entertainments*
 5704 WOOLSEY. *What Katy Did at School*
 5800 ALCOTT. *Little Women*
 5801 BRINK. *Caddie Woodlawn*
 5802 CHRISMAN. *Shen of the Sea*
 5803 ENRIGHT. *Then There Were Five*
 5804 FARLEY. *The Black Stallion*
 5805 GATES. *Blue Willow*
 5806 SEREDY. *The Good Master*
 5807 SPERRY. *Call It Courage*
 5808 WYSS. *The Swiss Family Robinson*
 5900 CLEMENS. *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer*
 5901 DEFOE. *Robinson Crusoe*
 5902 PYLE. *Some Merry Adventures of Robin Hood*
 5903 SALTEN. *Bambi*
 6800 ALTSHELER. *The Young Trailers*
 6801 MEADER. *Red Horse Hill*
 6802 O'BRIEN. *The Return of Silver Chief*
 6803 ——. *Silver Chief, Dog of the North*
 6900 CLEMENS. *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*
 6901 GRAY. *Adam of the Road*
 6902 JAMES. *Smoky, the Cowhorse*
 6903 KNIGHT. *Lassie Come-Home*
 6904 MEADER. *The Sea Snake*
 6905 PYLE. *The Story of King Arthur and His Knights*
 6906 SEYMOUR. *On the Edge of the Fjord*
 6907 STEVENSON. *Treasure Island*
 6908 SWIFT. *Gulliver's Travels*
 6909 TUNIS. *All-American*
 6910 WATSON. *Top Kick, U.S. Army Horse*
 7900 BIRD. *Granite Harbor*
 7901 BOYLSTON. *Sue Barton, Superintendent of Nurses*
 7902 DAVIS. *Stand Fast and Reply*
 7903 ELLSBERG. *On the Bottom*
 7904 FELSEN. *Struggle Is Our Brother*
 7905 FORBES. *Johnny Tremain*
 7906 LEWIS. *Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze*
 7907 MEADER. *Shadow in the Pines*
 7908 MEANS. *The Moved Outers*
 7909 PEASE. *The Black Tanker*

- 7910 SEREDY. *The Singing Tree*
- 7911 SILLIMAN. *The Scrapper*
- 7912 TERHUNE. *Lad: A Dog*
- 7913 TUNIS. *Iron Duke*
- 7914 ——. *The Kid from Tomkinsville*
- 7915 ——. *World Series*
- 7916 ——. *Yea! Wildcats!*
- 7917 VERNE. *Twenty Thousand Leagues Under the Sea*
- 7918 WILDER. *These Happy Golden Years*
- 7919 WORTH. *They Loved To Laugh*
- 8900 BUGBEE. *Peggy Covers the News*
- 8901 LAWSON. *Thirty Seconds Over Tokyo*
- 8902 O'HARA, pseud. *My Friend Flicka*
- 8903 RAWLINGS. *The Yearling*
- 8904 WHITE. *They Were Expendable*

Through the judicious use of this reading list, the teacher may learn much about the pupils' reading activities and preferences. Discussion of books with each child may reveal: books which have been started and given up, books which have proved uninteresting or actually distasteful, books which have been reread, books the pupil would like to share with his classmates, or books in which he has found treasured information or very great personal pleasure. Such an investigation is invariably rewarding. It provides the teacher with an essential understanding of pupils and the insight necessary for offering the most effective guidance in reading.

STANDARDIZED TESTS

Standardized tests of silent and oral reading will be helpful to supplement the foregoing analyses. The teacher should not attach too great significance to such tests nor overestimate their accuracy in revealing the pupil's reading status. Teachers find that the results of but one standardized test of silent reading, such as the *Gates*, the *Stanford*, or the *Progressive* reading tests, are adequate to meet practical needs in the average classroom. Standardized oral reading tests such as the *Gray Oral Reading Paragraphs* yield additional valuable information about the child who experiences difficulty in oral reading.

It is well to bear in mind that the results of such tests are only suggestive of a child's true reading status. They may indicate merely the level at which the child experiences difficulty. But here again

they may prove inadequate, since frustration is a product of many factors. Betts writes:

In a recent study by the Reading Clinic staff, it was found that not one of several standardized reading tests designed for use at the fifth grade level was adequate for determining the achievement levels of pupils at upper or lower ends of the distribution. Although ten per cent of the class did not exhibit desirable reading behavior on first grade materials, some of the tests graded these pupils no lower than second, third, or fourth grade level. In general, standardized tests may be expected to rate those pupils from one to four grades above their manifest achievement levels. While this is not an all-out indictment of achievement tests in reading, it is a caution to those who attempt to use standardized test data as a sole criterion for appraising achievement level. (1, p. 441)

The foregoing considerations make clear that it is necessary to supplement the knowledge of a child's reading status derived from standard tests by an estimate of his success in comprehending whole episodes or stories. A number of teachers are finding it practical to study the child's performance in reading from different types of reading materials *above* and *below* as well as *at* the reading level indicated by a standard test score. In addition, understanding of each child's reading can be enhanced by examining a record of the books he has read in and out of school. In a thorough appraisal, standardized reading tests, like intelligence tests, play a part. Their significance should be recognized, but not overstressed. A representative list of tests follows in Table XX.

CHECK LISTS

To obtain a fairly comprehensive check on reading attainment, the teacher may use a check list which includes the skills stressed in Chapter VI. Each child will be observed as he reads silently and orally. For example, the teacher can readily determine whether the pupil is able to note details, to follow directions, or to obtain the central thought of paragraphs in different types of materials read silently. In oral reading, too, the pupil's habits may be observed and specific needs determined. In cases of extreme retardation a more detailed diagnosis may be considered necessary.

TABLE XX
 READING TESTS FOR THE ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL
 AND FOR COLLEGE STUDENTS

<i>Test</i>	<i>Publisher</i>	<i>Designed for grades</i>	<i>Type of test</i>	<i>Working time</i>	<i>Number of forms</i>
The Chicago Reading Tests 1940-1944	E M Hale and Co., Eau Claire, Wis.		1. Comprehension of words 2. Comprehension of phrases 3. Comprehension of sentences 4. Comprehension of directions 5. Comprehension of paragraphs	31 min.	3
A		1-2	1. Comprehension of words 2. Comprehension of sentences 3. Comprehension of story, di- rections, and paragraphs	38 min.	3
B		2-4	4. Rate of reading 1. Comprehension of words 2. Comprehension of sentences 3. Comprehension of story, maps, paragraphs	45 min.	3
C		4-6	4. Rate of reading 1. Comprehension of words 2. Comprehension of sentences 3. Comprehension of story, maps, graphs, and para- graphs	45 min.	3 (also machine- scored edi- tions)
D		6-8	4. Rate of reading		
Gates Basic Reading Tests 1942	Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.	3-8			4 of each type
Type A			Reading to appreciate general significance	6 min. for grades 3-4; 8 min. for grades 5 and above	
Type B			Reading to predict the outcome of given events	10 min. for grades 3-4; 8 min. for grades 5 and above	
Type C			Reading to understand precise directions	10 min. for grades 3-4; 8 min. for grades 5 and above	
Type D			Reading to note details	10 min. for grades 3-4; 8 min. for grades 5 and above	

<i>Test</i>	<i>Publisher</i>	<i>Designed for grades</i>	<i>Type of test</i>	<i>Working time</i>	<i>Number of forms</i>
Gates Primary Reading Tests 1942	Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.	1 and 2 (first half)	Type 1. Word recognition Type 2. Sentence reading Type 3. Paragraph reading	15 min. 15 min. 20 min.	3 of each type
Gray Standardized Oral Reading Paragraphs 1915	Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.	1-8	Rate and accuracy of oral read- ing	Unlimited time	1
Iowa Silent Reading Tests New Edition Elementary Test (Revised) 1943	World Book Co., Yonkers- on-Hudson, N.Y.	4-8	1. Rate and comprehension 2. Directed reading 3. Word meaning 4. Paragraph comprehension 5. Sentence meaning 6. Location of information A. Alphabetizing B. Use of index	49 min	4
Iowa Silent Reading Tests New Edition Advanced Test (Revised) 1943	World Book Co., Yonkers- on-Hudson, N.Y.	High school and college	1. Rate and comprehension 2. Directed reading 3. Poetry comprehension 4. Word meaning 5. Sentence meaning 6. Paragraph comprehension 7. Location of information A. Use of index B. Selection of key words	45 min.	4
Metropolitan Achievement Tests Primary I Battery, 1946	World Book Co., Yonkers- on-Hudson, N.Y.	1	1. Word picture 2. Word recognition 3. Word meaning 4. Numbers	Approx. 45 min.	4
Metropolitan Achievement Tests Primary II Battery, 1946	World Book Co., Yonkers- on-Hudson, N.Y.	2	1. Reading 2. Word meaning 3. Arithmetic fundamentals 4. Arithmetic problems 5. Spelling	Approx. 85 min.	4
Metropolitan Elementary Reading Test 1946	World Book Co., Yonkers- on-Hudson, N.Y.	3-4	1. Reading 2. Vocabulary	35 min.	3

<i>Test</i>	<i>Publisher</i>	<i>Designed for grades</i>	<i>Type of test</i>	<i>Working time</i>	<i>Number of forms</i>
Metropolitan Intermediate Reading Test 1946	World Book Co., Yonkers- on-Hudson, N.Y.	5-6	1. Reading 2. Vocabulary	35 min.	3
Metropolitan Advanced Reading Test 1946	World Book Co., Yonkers- on-Hudson, N.Y.	7-9	1. Reading 2. Vocabulary	Approx. 35 min.	3
Michigan Vocabulary Profile Test 1939	World Book Co., Yonkers- on-Hudson, N.Y.	High school and college	1. Human relations 2. Commerce 3. Government 4. Physical sciences 5. Biological sciences 6. Mathematics 7. Fine arts 8. Sports	50 min or more as needed No definite time limits are set.	2
Minnesota Speed of Reading Test for College Students 1936	University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, Minn.	College grades	Speed of reading	6 min	2
Progressive Reading Tests, Primary 1943	California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, Calif.	1-3	1. Reading vocabulary 2. Reading comprehension	29 min.	3
Progressive Reading Tests, Elementary 1943	California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, Calif.	4-6	1. Reading vocabulary 2. Reading comprehension	35 min	3 (also 3 machine- scored editions)
Progressive Reading Tests, Intermediate 1943	California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, Calif.	7-9	1. Reading vocabulary 2. Reading comprehension	50 min	3 (also 3 machine- scored editions)
Progressive Reading Tests, Advanced 1943	California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, Calif.	9-14	1. Reading vocabulary 2. Reading comprehension	50 min	2 (also 2 machine- scored editions)

<i>Test</i>	<i>Publisher</i>	<i>Designed for grades</i>	<i>Type of test</i>	<i>Working time</i>	<i>Number of forms</i>
Stanford Primary Reading Test 1940	World Book Co., Yonkers- on-Hudson, N Y	2-3	1 Paragraph meaning 2 Word meaning	25 min	5
Stanford Intermediate Reading Test 1940	World Book Co., Yonkers- on-Hudson, N Y.	4-6	1 Paragraph meaning 2 Word meaning	30 min	5
Stanford Advanced Reading Test 1940	World Book Co., Yonkers- on-Hudson, N.Y.	7-9	1 Paragraph meaning 2. Word meaning	30 min	5
Traxler Silent Reading Test (Revised) 1942	Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.	7-10	1. Reading rate 2 Story comprehension 3. Word meaning 4. Paragraph comprehension	Approx. 50 min.	4 (also adapted for ma- chine scoring)
Van Wagenen and Dvorak Diagnostic Examination of Silent Reading Abilities 1940	Educational Test Bureau, Educational Publishers, Inc., Minneapolis, Minn.		1 Rate of comprehension 2 Perception of relations 3 Vocabulary in context 4. Vocabulary — isolated words 5. General information	5 min No time limits are given for tests 2-4, 45 min sug- gested for these four tests.	A hand- scored edition and a machine- scored edition
Intermediate Division		4-5			
Junior Division		6-9	6. Ability to grasp the central thought	Advisable to use two class periods for tests 6-10	
Senior Division		10-12	7. Ability to note clearly stated details 8 Interpretation 9 Integration of dispersed ideas 10 Ability to draw inferences	No definite time limits; 60-90 min. suggested.	

Betts emphasizes the importance of studying many aspects of the child's behavior to establish his frustration level, and recommends the use of the following criteria (1, p. 451):

- I. A comprehensive score of less than fifty per cent, based on factual and inferential questions
- II. Inability to pronounce ten per cent or more of the running words
- III. Inability to anticipate meaning
- IV. Unfamiliarity with the facts discussed in the material
- V. Frequent or continuous finger pointing
- VI. Distracting tension, such as frowning, blinking, excessive and erratic body movements, "nervousness," and faulty breath control
- VII. Withdrawal from the reading situation
 - A. Unwillingness to attempt the reading
 - B. Outright refusal to attempt reading
 - C. Crying
 - D. Attempts to distract the examiner's attention from the problem
- VIII. Easily distracted attention
- IX. Silent reading characterized by:
 - A. A very low rate
 - B. Inability to use context clues to pronunciation
 - C. Excessive lip movement
 - D. Whispering, or low vocal utterance
- X. Oral reading characterized by:
 - A. A lack of rhythm, or word by word reading
 - B. Failure to interpret punctuation
 - C. High-pitched voice
 - D. Irregular breathing
 - E. Increased tendency to stutter
 - F. Meaningless word substitution
 - G. Repetition of words
 - H. Insertion of words
 - I. Partial and complete word reversals
 - J. Omission of words
 - K. Practically no eye-voice span

Informal check lists employed at the beginning of the year for diagnostic purposes may be repeated at the end of the term to gauge improvement. Such lists yield valuable data which will supplement and extend the information secured from standardized tests.

STUDIES OF VOCABULARY

Vocabulary is such an important acquisition that its development should be appraised systematically. Teachers find it helpful in making such appraisals to observe the child's use of words in conversation and in written work. Vocabulary tests will aid to some degree, and diagnosis based on word counts will also prove relevant. Although a concern for vocabulary growth should characterize the teacher's efforts at all grade levels, it is especially significant in the early stages of the child's reading experience. In Chapter IV, specific steps for fostering vocabulary development have been presented in detail.

INTERVIEWS

The teacher of reading often finds it of value to interview the child's parents, and other teachers as well, to determine the amount and nature of improvement. Questions such as the following have been used in these interviews:

1. Have you noticed any improvement in the child's reading:
 - (a) in the amount, the breadth, and the quality of his reading?
 - (b) in the speed and accuracy with which he reads silently? orally?
2. Have you noticed any improvement in his attitudes toward his reading, especially in his gains as an independent reader?
3. Have you observed any improvement in his personal and social adjustments which may be an outgrowth of his reading:
 - (a) in his play and recreational activities?
 - (b) in character traits such as self-confidence, tolerance, and so forth?
 - (c) in ability to get along well with adults? with other children?
4. Does the child show greater interest in reading and owning books?

SELF-APPRAISAL CONFERENCES

After data have been obtained through use of the techniques described above, teachers may wish to confer with each child to obtain

his opinion of his reading growth and needs. Questions such as the following have proved provocative:

1. What progress have I made in reading (as revealed by tests, reading record, and so forth)?
 - (a) Have I gained in speed and accuracy?
 - (b) Has my reading increased in amount? Has it become more varied as to type? as to content?
 - (c) Have I read more books on a single subject than formerly?
2. Have I done my best? Or could I have made greater growth had I used my time to better advantage or had I made wiser choices of reading material?
3. What are my greatest needs in reading?
4. How can I best proceed in meeting those needs; that is, what should be my reading plans for next semester or next year? How should I begin to carry them out?

CUMULATIVE RECORDS

Definite records are aids to the teacher in diagnosing needs, in setting up group and individual objectives, in planning further guidance, and in appraising progress. The child, too, should examine appropriate records of his growth in order that he may be challenged to develop self-confidence and the desire to proceed to higher levels. Cumulative records should accompany the child as he progresses through school, and should be used by teachers to promote steady growth.

An example of a useful record form is reproduced on the following page. This record form should be placed in the child's personal folder. A simplified form may be employed for the primary grades and the more comprehensive edition for boys and girls in the middle and upper grades.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

The foregoing discussion has revealed clearly the need for comprehensive records to provide adequate evaluation of pupil growth through reading. In individual and in group instruction, the teacher of reading will estimate gains by reference to the items listed on page 224.

PUPIL'S READING RECORD

Name _____

Age _____

Group _____

First
CheckSecond
CheckThird
Check

PHASE OF GROWTH	NEEDS DIAG- NOSED	GUID- ANCE	EVALU- ATION	FUR- THER GUID- ANCE	GROWTH OB- SERVED
A. Reading itself					
1. Amount *					
2. Range					
3. Intensity					
4. Quality					
5. Reading abilities					
a. Mechanics					
b. Ability to compre- hend: words, phrases, sentences, paragraphs, whole selections					
c. Ability to relate ma- terials read to past ex- perience					
d. Ability to organize and express ideas					
e. Ability to criticize and evaluate materials read					
f. Ability to use books and library efficiently					
g. Ability to discriminate between good and poor books					
B. Related language abilities					
1. Oral expression					
2. Written expression					
C. General adjustment					
1. Play and recreation					
2. Character traits					
3. Social relationships					
4. General behavior					
D. Self-appraisal					
E. Parents' appraisal					

* Use back of page to record titles of books read.

1. Increase in the amount of reading of different kinds of materials
2. Progress shown on standardized tests
3. Success in reading materials in the different subject areas
4. Increase in ability to read critically and for varied purposes
5. Improvement in the play or recreation pattern
6. Improvement shown by the reports of parents and other teachers concerning each pupil's reading
7. Gains reflected by the pupil's own evaluation of his status and needs

In this chapter, the author has given practical methods through which such an evaluation can be made by the classroom teacher.

SELECTED REFERENCES

1. BETTS, EMMETT ALBERT *Foundations of Reading Instruction*. New York: American Book Company, 1946.
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❧ CHAPTER IX ❧

Case Studies of Severely Retarded Readers

THROUGHOUT this book, the author has suggested ways in which the classroom teacher may study pupils and provide guidance in reading according to individual and group needs. In almost every classroom, the teacher will find some persistently poor readers whose special problems necessitate the making of somewhat detailed case studies. Such study will require simply an extension and intensification of methods already described as essential in understanding the needs of all pupils. Data should be secured to reveal each pupil's physical condition, his mental status, his social and emotional maturity, his school history, and his home background. The extent of the study will be determined by the school situation as well as by the teacher's experience and competency in diagnostic work. The following discussion treats briefly the areas which the teacher should explore in making a case study.

NEEDS OF THE RETARDED READER

The pupil who is severely retarded in reading should be given a thorough physical examination. Data concerning vision, hearing, and general health should be obtained from the school nurse or doctor. Pupils who have serious defects in vision or hearing should be referred to specialists. The teacher should examine the child's health history for evidence of recurring disorders or irregularities. Help in studying children's physical condition may be secured from many sources. Rogers' *What Every Teacher Should Know about the Physical Condition of Her Pupils* (7) will enable the teacher to under-

stand factors of significance in physical health. A number of other pamphlets and books include relevant information. The following are recommended:

Health in Schools. American Association of School Administrators, Twentieth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1942.

Healthful Living for Children. Association for Childhood Education. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1944.

Principles of Health Education, by C. E. Turner. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1939 (2nd Ed.).

The Role of the Teacher in Health Education, by Ruth M. Strang and Dean F. Smiley. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941.

School Health Problems, by Laurence B. Chenoweth and Theodore K. Selkirk. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1947 (3rd Ed.).

Solving School Health Problems. The Astoria Demonstration Study, by Dorothy B. Nyswander, Director. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1942.

Filmstrips and motion pictures have been developed to aid teachers and others in judging the child's physical development and needs. The following may prove of value:

Teacher Observation of School Children. "A filmstrip for the use of school physicians and nurses in helping teachers to recognize early signs of illness and deviations from good health." For information concerning this filmstrip write to the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, Health and Welfare Division, New York 10, New York.

*Your Children's Ears.** 2 reels, sound. "Few people are born deaf and all too frequently loss of hearing in later life is due to carelessness or ignorance. In this film the physiology of the ear is explained in detail by animated diagrams. Often children who appear dull and unresponsive are suffering from hearing difficulties, due to adenoids or other obstructions, which can be cleared up if given proper medical attention."

* Descriptions of films taken from Supplement II-September 1946, New York University Film Library, Press Annex Building, Fourth Floor, 26 Washington Square, New York 3, New York.

*Your Children's Eyes.** 2 reels, sound. "Rest, recreation, and good food are necessary to healthy eyesight. Medical advice must be sought in cases of organic defects or diseases, but the application of logical common sense in daily life will keep a healthy eye healthy. Amusing animated diagrams depict the physiology of the eye and explain what is meant by long and short eyesight."

The teacher should observe carefully the vision and hearing of each child to identify irregularities or handicaps. Any pupil in whom the teacher finds a defect or impairment should be referred to a specialist. In some cases, the teacher may be able to administer some simple tests to identify the nature and extent of defects. Such teachers may use profitably the procedures suggested by Witty and Kopel. (10)

The general mental ability of the retarded reader should be ascertained by a competent examiner, and made available to the teacher. The *Terman-Merrill Revision of the Stanford-Binet Test of Intelligence* is perhaps the most reliable examination. Additional performance tests of intelligence should be given if possible. The *Kuhlmann-Anderson Group Test of Intelligence* is a reliable instrument which can be administered by the teacher. (See Table XIII, Chapter III.)

In Chapter VIII, standardized tests of silent and oral reading ability are discussed. The teacher should have access to the results of silent reading tests such as the *Progressive*, the *Stanford*, or the *Gates*. In addition, diagnostic tests and check lists should be used to ascertain each pupil's particular needs in silent and oral reading. Chapter VIII contains a detailed discussion of this problem, and offers suggestions for teachers.

It is important also for the teacher to study a record of the pupil's school attendance and his marks in various subjects. Reading failure is sometimes associated with frequent change in schools; it may have first occurred at a time when the pupil was recovering from an illness or suffering from a physical irregularity. On the other hand, failure may have been associated with instruction by an inappropriate or inflexible method. It is necessary for the teacher to have access to such information in order to understand the particular needs of each poor reader.

* *Ibid.*

Recent studies have emphasized the fact that reading difficulties frequently have their roots in unfortunate or unwholesome home relationships or conditions.

In an attempt to identify and evaluate the causes of poor reading, Helen M. Robinson secured the help of a number of specialists, and made case studies of thirty children. She states:

Thirty severely retarded readers with Binet I.Q.'s between 85 and 137 were examined by each of these specialists. Anomalies were identified, and the findings were presented. Following the individual examinations, the specialists met and attempted to evaluate these anomalies and to identify possible causes of reading retardation operating in each case. Finally, an intensive remedial program for twenty-two of the thirty cases was undertaken to secure evidence of the potency of each of these possible causes. . . .

[These data] emphasize the importance of the home and of the social environment on the total adjustment of the child. They imply that a stable, wholesome home environment exerts a definite influence on the school progress of the child. . . . Unfortunately, many families are either unaware of the significance of the relationship just considered or are unable to control the conditions that create favorable ones. (6, pp. 219, 222-223)

Another study stresses the significance of home conditions, emotional stability, and attitudes toward reading in the case of the poor reader. Edith Gann, in *Reading Difficulty and Personality Organization*, reports data for retarded readers in grades III-VI of seven elementary schools.

It is in the dynamic aspects of his personality adjustment, generally, and in his attitudes toward reading, specifically, that [the retarded reader's] difficulty in adaptation seems most marked. It might be suggested that his less adequate personality adjustment may be due to his reading difficulty, which could have begun in the earliest stages of learning how to read. It is the writer's opinion, however, that a secure and stable person will, with the usual school arrangements, learn along with others to read at least with average success. Nothing concerning the retarded reader's school experience, the teachers who taught him, nor the methods used in teaching him was so different in relation to average and good readers that the reason for the difficulties might

be found here. The information concerning conditions of vision, hearing, and general health discloses no defects that are more unusual or extreme in the case of the retarded reader. The most pertinent clues, therefore, are in relation to the personality adjustments which do differentiate the groups. Uncertainty, however, still remains, with reference to the causes of the personality difficulties. . . .

Implications from the findings in this study may be applied to the practical school situation where the retarded reader should be considered as a personality problem, as well as a learning problem. Consideration of his reading difficulty cannot be made apart from his personality adjustment and his attitudes toward the reading experience. Helping to build emotional security may be essential in stimulating greater participation and better achievements. (4, pp. 139-140)

Still another provocative study emphasizes the role of emotional instability in the case of the poor reader. Virginia M. Axline reports the provision of nondirective therapy for thirty-seven second grade pupils who were "disabled" readers. No remedial efforts were undertaken, although these pupils had an opportunity to read whenever they voluntarily chose to do so. At the end of three and one half months, gains in personal adjustment were reported, as well as marked improvement in reading ability as revealed by tests. The author states:

This study indicates that a nondirective therapeutic approach might be helpful in solving certain "reading problems." It indicates that it would be worth while to set up research projects to test this hypothesis further: that nondirective therapeutic procedures applied to children with reading problems are effective not only in bringing about a better personal adjustment, but also in building up a readiness to read. (1, p. 69)

In the Northwestern University Psycho-Educational Clinic the author of this book found that over forty per cent of secondary school students seriously retarded in reading skill were characterized by emotional problems and unfavorable attitudes. In these cases, it was not clear whether the emotional instability caused the poor reading, or whether the reading failure caused or contributed to the students' personality problems.

Another investigator, after examining thirty published studies of the relationship of personality maladjustment to reading disability, emphasized the fact that, in almost all of the studies, the emotional maladjustment might have been caused or seriously aggravated by the reading difficulties (8). Regardless of whether emotional problems are causes or effects of reading difficulties, the child's emotional status should be studied in an effort to identify conditions or situations which are associated with poor reading. Procedures have been described in Chapters II, III, and VIII by which the teacher may obtain such information. In the case of the retarded reader, the teacher will obtain help by use of the interest inventory, the anecdotal record, and systematic observations. Additional pertinent information may be secured from interviews with parents and with other teachers.

CASE STUDY TECHNIQUES

From the foregoing discussion, it is clear that every poor reader is characterized by several conditions or needs which should be considered if remedial work is to prove most effective. It is the conviction of the author of this book that the classroom teacher can readily become qualified to make case studies which will reveal the status and needs of many pupils who require individual help and encouragement to overcome special problems. In fact, large numbers of classroom teachers, after being enrolled in the author's courses in remedial reading, have gained competency in the use of case study techniques. Others have developed skill through independent reading and study. Of course, the services of well organized clinics are needed for some cases, but it has been shown that many handicapped pupils will respond favorably to the help offered by the classroom teacher who has diagnosed their special needs. When such case studies reveal serious defects in vision or hearing, or anomalies in learning, the pupils should be referred to competent specialists for more expert diagnosis and treatment.

No single design for making case studies can be recommended, since the training of the teacher and the particular situation will determine the extent of study; however, the outline on the following pages will disclose some significant areas for investigation. Several other investigators have developed outlines including areas similar to

these which follow (2, Chapter XII). It will be noted also that these areas are comparable to the fields of study discussed in the more general treatment of evaluation found in Chapter VIII of this book.

CASE STUDY OUTLINE

1. *Identification Data* — Date of study — Name of teacher making study — Name of school
Name, sex, age, address, and school grade of pupil
2. *Reason for Study*
Nature of problem
Ways revealed
3. *Home Conditions*
Character of home
Father's and mother's occupations
Social and economic status of parents
Names of brothers and sisters; their academic backgrounds and records; their attitude toward the pupil being studied
Attitudes of parents toward the pupil's problem
Nature and amount of reading materials in the home
Attitude of parents toward reading
Interview with the parents and siblings in the pupil's home
4. *Educational History*
Present scholastic record of pupil
Previous marks
School history
5. *Mental Test Data*
Results of group or individual examinations of intelligence — *Stanford-Binet*, and performance scales; group mental tests
Previous tests
6. *Educational Status*
Results of standard tests and of check lists disclosing strengths and weaknesses
7. *Interests and Attitudes*
Strong interests
Attitudes toward reading
Results from interest inventories, anecdotal records, interviews, and observations
8. *Social and Emotional Maturity*
Response to other pupils; to teachers

Amount and nature of social participation

Play activities

Behavior disorders

Ratings by parents and other teachers

9. *Special Abilities or Defects*

Results of questionnaires, observations, and reports of members of family or of friends

10. *Recommendations for Remedial Work*

Suggestions for school; for home

Steps in remedial program

The following case studies are presented to reveal the kinds of difficulties which may be encountered in the retarded reader.* The first case study not only describes needs, but includes also a detailed description of the steps in a remedial program; the second illustrates the significance of family relationships and attitudes toward reading; the third discloses the relationship of physical conditions to reading disability; while the fourth and fifth illustrate problems faced by almost all high school teachers.

CASE STUDIES

CASE 1. (R — A Mentally Average Boy of Age Twelve)

R was twelve years old when he was referred to the Clinic. His responses were slow but accurate; he was cooperative throughout the examination. He said that he had asked to come to the Clinic because he was very poor in reading and might be able to obtain the help he needed to overcome his difficulty.

His mother indicated that R's health history had been superior. He had contracted only the usual childhood diseases and had participated with satisfaction in varied play activities during early childhood. Home relationships appeared normal; R's only sibling, a younger girl, age eight, liked and respected him. It was soon apparent that R made social contacts easily, and had many friends of his own age. Ratings on visual charts and on the audiometer suggested that his vision and hearing were normal. Systematic observations confirmed his mother's statements regarding R's unusually satisfactory present health status.

* The author desires to acknowledge the services of Ann Coomer, Lois Happ, and Frank Lindquist, who assisted him in making case studies and in offering remedial work.

On the *Terman-Merrill Revision of the Stanford-Binet*, R's I.Q. proved to be 108. Performance tests yielded an I.Q. of 118.

The following results were secured from standard reading tests:

	<i>Grade equivalent</i>
Gates (4-type)	
Type A. General Significance	4.9
Type B. Outcome of Events	4.8
Type C. Following Directions	5.6
Type D. Noting Details	3.9
Stanford Achievement	
Paragraph meaning	5.2
Word meaning	3.2
Gray Oral Reading Paragraphs	3.8

R's rate of silent reading was less than 100 words per minute; moreover, similar rates of silent reading were found for different types of materials. His performance on the oral reading test revealed a very meager vocabulary. R made many types of errors and was clearly indifferent to the way he pronounced many words. Moreover, he expressed a distinct antipathy toward oral reading.

During the interview concerning his interests and play it was found that, despite R's unusually successful social adjustment, he was beginning to be worried and unhappy over his reading retardation. He stated that he did not like books, had never read a book through, and would not even try to improve if he did not realize that the ability to read well was so important in his future success at school. However, at times, he made contradictory statements: *e.g.*, "I don't really see why I need to read; I can find out what I want to know by hearing other people read."

When R was asked if he liked to have people read to him, he answered emphatically, "No." Then he volunteered the information that during his first year in school his mother read to him, and that he got along fairly well. He said that he had tried hard to learn to read but that from the first he had been unsuccessful. However, his face became animated when he spoke of the comics. Reading the comics gave him great pleasure. He had assembled "the best collection of comics in his neighborhood" and exchanged them for various things he coveted. He said, "I don't always read even these

magazines, but by looking at the pictures I can find out what is happening."

Another strong interest — one that recurred during the interview — related to ships. This interest appeared when R discussed his favorite movies; and it came out again during the time he told about the things he had made. He was proud of a ship model he had constructed with the assistance of his father, who had been in the Navy during the War. Once more, when R was telling about "what he wanted to be," the interest was evident. He stated that he wanted to be the captain of a ship. Then he grew a little more modest, and concluded: "I guess I'll join the Navy or the Army when I'm old enough." Because R's cousin had been in the Army, he had become greatly interested in this branch of the service. "I think I'd like to read some stories about the Army and the Navy — that is, if I could read better."

Examination of R's understanding of episodes showed that he could read with a satisfactory degree of comprehension the following stories in *Fun and Frolic* (a third grade reader):

Mr. Timothy's Boat Yard
The Little Old Country Car
The First Balloon Ride

When R was asked to read a comic magazine aloud, he insisted that he could read better silently than orally. "Please don't ask me to read anything out loud; I hate to read out loud."

Few emotional difficulties were evidenced by R. He showed, however, a slight tendency to stammer which became particularly noticeable when he tried to read aloud. Moreover, a marked concern over his imminent failure in school was expressed again and again. "The worst of it all is," he remarked, "I can't read history or geography."

A list of words was dictated to R. His written as well as his oral spelling was very poor. He seemed helpless in attacking new words and made a number of futile attempts to unlock new words by sounding out their parts.

It was concluded that a remedial program should be designed to help R acquire a basic stock of sight words and develop self-assurance and self-confidence through successful experiences in reading and related activities.

*Brief Summary of Remedial Work (Excerpts from diary record)**First Day*

On the first day, R told a story about the ship model he had made. After considerable discussion, I asked him if he would object if I wrote down his account, since I was very much interested. He said that he had no objection. He dictated with extreme care his story of the construction of the model ship. I put the story aside and asked R if he would like to see a book that was used in teaching men in the Army to read. We examined *Meet Private Pete*. R enjoyed looking at the pictures and *asked* if he might read the book. "How would you like to read it with me?" I inquired. "O. K.," he answered; "I sure like those pictures."

Second Day

I read aloud R's story of the model ship and asked him if he would like to try to read it. "I'd rather read *Meet Private Pete*," he answered. "All right," I said, "but we'll have to learn the new words if we are going to know what happens all the way through the book." R read the first chapter silently. Then we talked about what he had read. I asked: "Do you know all the words?" "I'm not sure," he answered. I presented the flash cards with the main words upon them. He recognized most of these words quickly. Ninety per cent success was raised to one hundred per cent accuracy after a second showing of the cards.

Third Day

I told R about the practice book designed to accompany *Meet Private Pete*. After we examined this book, R remarked, "I'd like to see what I can do with it."

*Progress at Later Intervals**Second Week*

The week was spent in reading Parts I, II, and III of *Meet Private Pete* and in doing the exercises in the practice book. R's enthusiasm was shown by his expressed desire to take the practice book home to demonstrate his growing ability. R was also introduced to the Navy's materials for illiterate men. These materials were studied at home.

Fourth Week

By the end of the fourth week R was able to read with a high degree of comprehension the materials in Part IV of *Meet Private Pete*. It was felt that attention could now be profitably directed to spelling. The nouns appearing on the flash cards were dictated to R and games were employed to see how many words R could spell correctly. We also noted common principles in accurate spelling. We always proceeded to derive spelling principles from known words; R was encouraged to formulate his own rules.

Fifth Week

At the beginning of the fifth week, the following books were placed on the table for R to examine: Vinton's *Laffy of the Navy Salvage Divers*, Emerson's *Mickey Sees the U.S.A.*, and Conger's *Valery*.

R was asked if he would like to take home one of these books. He chose *Laffy*, which he later asserted was the best book he had ever read. He read the first chapter aloud to me. On the following day he appeared to be delighted by his father's commendation of his improved reading. R said that he had surprised his father by being able to read several chapters aloud. During this week, he also read several stories from *Luck and Pluck* and *Merry Hearts and Bold* (textbooks for the fourth and fifth grades).

Sixth and Seventh Weeks

During these two weeks, R completed *Meet Private Pete* as well as all the exercises in the accompanying practice book, *Learning to Read*. When he returned *Laffy*, he asked to take home *Mickey Sees the U.S.A.* We examined some of the Disney pictures and a few of the paragraphs. He chuckled and stated that he was going to enjoy this book. A few days later, R reported that he had read several chapters to his mother and father. I suggested that we might now try to read geography books and histories. R read aloud the first chapter in his sixth grade history textbook and discussed its meaning with considerable success and satisfaction. At this time, R found great pleasure in reading a number of books from the *New World Neighbors* series. He was especially enthusiastic about stories of Canada, Hawaii, and Alaska. The stories in these books seemed to kindle an interest in geography.

The following weeks brought the introduction of *My Weekly Reader*, *Story Parade*, and *Young America*, as well as several narratives and essays. After a semester of remedial work, it was felt that R could proceed independently with only weekly checks on his progress. It was believed that the goal of remedial reading had been reached, since R's attitude toward reading had been altered and his anxieties had been eliminated. Moreover, he had developed the fundamental habits and skills related to effective and meaningful silent and oral reading.

CASE 2. (M — A Nine-Year-Old Mentally Superior Girl)

M was referred to the Psycho-Educational Clinic of Northwestern University by her teacher, who stated that she seemed very bright but was "unsuccessful in everything she attempted; she was particularly handicapped in her class because of her failure in reading." M was reported to be "nervous, irresponsible, and completely lacking in ability to work with her group."

Physical tests were administered and no irregularities were noted. M's health history showed that she had been average or superior in physical development during early childhood.

The *Stanford Revision of the Binet Test of Intelligence* yielded an I.Q. of 128. Performance and group intelligence tests also disclosed superiority. Throughout the testing M was somewhat irritable and her attention was easily distracted. When M felt that she had performed creditably, she remarked: "I can do arithmetic better than anyone else in my class," or "I bet my brother couldn't do this." Again and again she said, "That was good, wasn't it?" after she had given a correct response.

Educational tests revealed silent reading accomplishment at the second grade level and oral reading at the third grade level. M was asked to read aloud one of the stories she chose from *Fun and Frolic*. She read with considerable ease and fluency. After she had read aloud for ten minutes, she was requested to tell "what she had read." "I don't know," she answered; "I never remember anything." Questioning brought forth some accurate responses, but on the whole her retention seemed very poor. Similar results were secured from social studies readers and from passages selected from *My Weekly Reader*.

M's interest in music was very strong. However, she asserted she never had an opportunity to use the piano at home because her brother "played all the time." M listened to the radio several hours daily and chose popular and classical musical selections. She asserted: "I could play the piano better than my brother if I only had a chance."

M said she didn't like to read anything but the "comic books." She said that school was "all right" but that she didn't like to go to school.

M's mother was interviewed. Again and again she commented on the superiority of her son. T was three years older than M. He was described as an active, healthy boy who received excellent marks in school, read widely, and was generally well adjusted. His only quarrels were with his sister. "M has never been so bright as her brother. She never reads. She is like her father — he doesn't read much," said the mother.

A few days later, M was asked to tell "what she wanted to do when she grew up." "I want to be a stenographer so as to be able to help my father," she answered. The strength of her attachment to her father appeared many times during a discussion of her interests and attitudes. Among her three wishes were the desire to be able to help her father, and the hope that she would be able to play the piano brilliantly in order to gain his admiration.

An interview with M's father disclosed a normal liking for both children. A somewhat stronger interest was shown, however, in his daughter. "The only trouble with M is that she won't read. I think she's bright enough, although her mother says she's stupid at times," he said. M's father was asked about his own reading habits. He stated that he read very little, but he indicated that he was interested in music and sports.

An interview was held with both parents present. M's mother appeared surprised at the high intelligence rating of her daughter. Discussion followed concerning the reading at home. During this discussion it became evident that M's mother also did very little reading. It was agreed that M should be given greater opportunity to use the piano and to develop her keen interest in music. M's parents decided to purchase several albums of recordings for her (including *Peter and the Wolf*). To stimulate M's interest in reading,

they gave her the storybooks designed to accompany these recordings. And M's father obtained for her some Disney books which she wanted.

An interview was held with M's teacher. It was agreed that provision should be made for M to participate to a greater extent in a number of class activities and gradually to become an active member of several groups. Opportunities too were to be provided for M to read aloud certain passages and to discuss their significance with different groups. Appropriate recognition and praise were to be given for such contributions.

A few days after the interview with the teacher, M was chosen as the leader of a group appointed to arrange a program for an afternoon meeting to which all parents were to be invited. When the program was presented, M not only managed the proceedings successfully but she also played the piano creditably. M's mother was so highly gratified that she obtained an excellent private teacher to instruct her daughter. M's brother, who attended the meeting at which his sister performed, seemed very proud of her accomplishment. At home, all members of the family began to discuss books and articles they had read. At school, M was given increased opportunity to assume responsibilities. Within three months, great improvement was observed in M's reading ability and interests. She seemed to be safely established upon the road to becoming an efficient reader and a more successful, happy child.

CASE 3. (B — A Ten-Year-Old Boy with Thyroid Deficiency)

During the years 1930–1935, several pupils were referred to the Psycho-Educational Clinic of Northwestern University who were found to be not only seriously retarded in reading ability but also very low in basal metabolic rates. Thorough physical examinations and several B.M.R. tests established the need for medical treatment as well as for assistance in learning to read. One of these pupils has already been described in detail by the author and Helen Shacter (11). From time to time, at subsequent periods, a few other such pupils were observed in the Clinic. An account of one of these cases follows. It will be noted that the present study of B reveals many factors contributing to his retardation, including low B.M.R., slowness in bodily activity, indifference, impoverished play pattern, as

well as ineffective reading and study habits, and unfortunate attitudes toward reading.

B was ten years, one month of age when he was first referred to the Psycho-Educational Clinic. His mental age, obtained by the *Stanford-Binet Test*, corresponded exactly to his chronological age. On the *Porteus Test of Motor Coordination, Prudence, and Forethought*, B earned an I.Q. of 90.

A thorough physical examination was administered. Responses to tests of vision, hearing, and general health were normal. B's health history disclosed that he had contracted several of the children's diseases, but had apparently recovered fully. He was somewhat overweight at the time he was first examined. At that time, his B.M.R. was -25. Medication was prescribed and started within a few days.

B appeared awkward in all bodily movements. On the interest inventory he indicated that he took part in very few of the play pursuits popular with boys of his age. His teacher stated that he was unsocial and uncooperative. Moreover, repeated efforts to interest him in social pursuits had proved unsuccessful. His cooperation might be secured at the beginning of a project. However, he would later withdraw unless there was constant supervision. B's mother stated that he was indifferent to all social activities at home, although both parents had tried again and again to stimulate his interest and elicit his participation in various activities involving other children. They had purchased a bicycle and baseball equipment hoping to stimulate an interest in sports. Despite these efforts, B continued to be unresponsive and indifferent.

In infancy and early childhood B had caused his parents little trouble or anxiety, although he had been somewhat slow in walking and in developing motor control. He spoke his first words when he was fourteen months of age, and sentences were employed by him only a few months later. B, an only child, was given superior medical services whenever these were necessary.

From the first, B experienced difficulty in school. After he had been in the first grade for one month, his teacher indicated that he was lazy and unresponsive. At the end of the first year, B had made very little progress in learning to read. However, he was promoted and continued with his group in the second grade of the same school. During his second and third years in school, he followed a pattern

which soon characterized all his behavior. He offered no resistance to suggestions, but took part in all activities in a perfunctory manner. Whenever supervision was removed he withdrew from all projects. Frequently he would stand on the sidelines while other children were taking part in games. At such times he showed little interest in the progress or outcome of the contest.

The *Stanford Achievement Test* in reading was administered. B's score equaled the norm for the second grade at the beginning of the year. On the *Gray Oral Reading Paragraphs* he attained a grade rating of 1.8. A check list was employed to record his error patterns in silent and oral reading. He displayed many minor and gross errors in oral reading. When these errors were pointed out to B, he seemed unconcerned or detached.

B reported that he had no close friends among boys of his own age. He said that his uncle and his aunt, who lived on a farm, were his best friends. It was suggested that B spend a week with them, and that an attempt be made to interest him in some aspects of farm life.

Before remedial work was started, B spent ten days with his uncle and aunt. On the first day of remedial instruction, B was asked to tell a story about his trip to the farm. He became somewhat animated in telling his story — particularly in his description of a pony he had ridden. B's story of his ride was placed on an experience chart. Words were selected and used on flash cards to establish rapid recognition. A number of very easy books about ponies and horses were then read aloud by him. He dictated several other stories and improved in his ability to recognize words taken from these stories. Systematic instruction in silent and oral reading was now undertaken and a second grade textbook and workbook were used daily. After the fourth week, *My Weekly Reader* was introduced and exercises in the appropriate *Skilltext* were also undertaken. B began to show a marked interest in his progress after the second month. The *Dolch Basic Sight Vocabulary Cards* were used at this time to assure recognition and understanding of frequently encountered words (3). B displayed enthusiasm over his successes in this endeavor. Moreover, he turned to books and other reading materials with greater pleasure. As more varied experiences were provided, his interest increased.

The *Stanford Achievement Test* and the *Gates Silent Reading Tests* were readministered seven months after remedial work had been initiated. Marked gains were revealed. Again after fourteen months alternate forms of the same tests were given to B. At this time his B.M.R. was within the normal range, but medication was still continued. The educational test results are shown below.

TEST RESULTS FOR B AT THREE INTERVALS

<i>Gray Oral Reading Paragraphs</i>		<i>Gates</i>				<i>Stanford Achievement</i>	
		<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>Paragraph Meaning</i>	<i>Word Meaning</i>
	Grade	Grade				Grade	
Initial test	1.8						
After seven months	2.5	2.9	2.8	3.0	3.4	3.2	3.8
After fourteen months	4.0	4.2	4.8	4.9	5.1	4.5	4.8

Toward the end of the first year of remedial work, B was again given an interest inventory. He now showed a much different attitude from that originally expressed. He had developed, for example, interest in tractors, machines, and farm equipment. He wanted, he said, to operate a model farm when he completed high school. He was reading with pleasure a number of books, including Morgan's *The Boys' Book of Engines, Motors and Turbines*. He was finding pleasure, too, in the Disney books, and was enjoying life generally. Perhaps the most significant gain was in his general adjustment to other pupils. He now had as his best friend a boy of his own age. His baseball outfit and his bicycle were being used constantly. B illustrates a type of poor reader who may be found occasionally in our schools. His progress shows clearly the possibility of offering effective help to such pupils. And, unmistakably, this case reveals the many factors that must be taken into consideration if remedial work is to prove most successful.

CASE 4. (J — A Slow Learner in the Secondary School)

J, age fifteen years, two months, was referred to the Psycho-Educational Clinic by his ninth grade English teacher, who stated that he was a cooperative, pleasant boy whose reading retardation was serious. No reading tests had been administered at school but

J was reported to be failing in almost every task which demanded rapid silent reading.

J's mother was a kindly, industrious woman who had completed only six grades in a city public school. Her interests centered in her home and family. J's father was an electrician, whose income enabled him to support his family in moderate circumstances. He was eager for J to complete high school. J had one brother, seven years older than he, who left school during his sophomore year to go to work as a janitor. He was reported to be successful in this occupation. At home, J's life was agreeable except at those times when report cards came from the school. On such occasions, his father became angry and quarrels resulted.

J's eyes and ears were examined, and the school physician's report on his general health was obtained. J appeared to be free from sensory defects and to be in excellent health. He participated in the usual games and sports with boys of his own age.

The *Stanford Revision of the Binet Test* yielded an I.Q. of 92. Performance tests corroborated this rating. On the *Terman Group Test of Mental Ability*, J's I.Q. was 96.

The following results were secured upon standard tests of reading:

Gates Reading Survey for Grades 3 to 10, Form I

Reading Grade

Vocabulary	5.6
Comprehension	6.0
Speed	4.3

On the *Gray Oral Reading Paragraphs*, J earned a score which was the equivalent of the norm for grade VI. He omitted many common words and mispronounced others.

J's academic record revealed low attainment from the time he entered the first grade. However, he had been promoted with the hope that he would do better in each succeeding grade. His average mark at the time he was first interviewed was D on a scale ranging from A to F. He stated that he spent several hours each night studying his homework but was unable to finish a single assignment.

According to J, reading, English, history, and geography had always proved difficult. But he said that he liked arithmetic and shopwork. His scores on the *Stanford Achievement Test, Advanced*

Edition, Form V equaled the norm for grade VI in arithmetic computation. His teacher reported that J's best attainment was in shop-work.

J was friendly and cooperative at all times. When questioned about his reading, he seemed embarrassed and finally remarked: "I have never finished reading any book but the comics." He said that he read the comic strips in the daily paper at home and looked at the *Saturday Evening Post*, the only magazine which came regularly to his home.

J seemed to get along well with his teachers and with other pupils. His record contained no mention of behavior or disciplinary problems. He said that he enjoyed baseball more than any other sport. He hoped to play on the baseball team if his school marks could be improved.

A general slowness characterized J's responses. When questions became difficult, he simply stopped trying; he would sit quietly staring into the distance. He displayed unusual interest when the possibility of his learning to read more effectively was suggested to him. He spoke in admiration of his brother who had been in the Army. His brother read to him frequently.

J was given an opportunity to examine *Meet Private Pete* and the practice book, *Learning to Read*. He looked at the pictures throughout the reader and asked if he might take one of the books home. We suggested that he take with him both the reader and the practice book.

When J visited the Clinic again, he brought the completed exercises in the fourth or last section of the practice book. His responses were accurate and he was enthusiastic about making further efforts to learn to read. During a discussion of his family relationships, J indicated that his brother had been to Hawaii during the War and had told him many stories about the Islands. J was shown *Children of the Sun in Hawaii* (one of the books in the *New World Neighbors* series). He requested that he be permitted to read this book. After examining the pictures in one of the books illustrated by Disney (*Mickey Sees the U.S.A.* by Emerson), he said, "You sure have a lot of books I'd like to read."

We pointed out to J that we believed that he could learn to read very well if he would try. He agreed to report five times each week

for remedial work. The length of each period was to be forty-five minutes.

The following were the recommendations to the tutor who was appointed to work with J: Have J begin by reading silently some episodes from *Mickey Sees the U.S.A.* After twenty-five or thirty minutes of silent reading, check comprehension. Then devote the final fifteen minutes to work in a practice book such as the *Skilltexts* (American Education Press). Give speed tests from time to time and encourage rapid silent reading. After a few days, introduce *My Weekly Reader*. Find a number of exciting stories (about baseball or other sports) in Hovious and Shearer's *Wings for Reading* and in Roberts's *Let's Read!* Invite discussion of these stories. Have J make a list of troublesome words encountered in his science books and inaugurate a study of specialized vocabularies. During the third or fourth week, visit the library with J and help him to select books of appropriate difficulty. Continue the combination of rapid silent reading and practice exercises until J seems ready to take up the reading of his regular assignments. At this time, use his school texts as a basis for remedial work.

The tutor outlined a specific program for J and kept a diary of the progress of the work. After a week of remedial endeavor, it was clear that J was already making rapid progress. It appeared that J might overcome his major difficulties within a semester or two of remedial work.

CASE 5. (S — A Sixteen-Year-Old Boy Showing Severe Reading Retardation)

S, sixteen years of age, and in the tenth grade of a metropolitan high school, was referred to the Psycho-Educational Clinic because of failure in school, "probably traceable to poor reading." S was accompanied by his father, who was disturbed by a recently received report from the school in which it was suggested that S should not be encouraged to attend college. The boy was confident that he would sometime attend college. S's father believed that the recent correction of a minor eye defect had eliminated one of the most important causes of the boy's failure in reading. He asserted that his son could now make rapid progress in overcoming his retardation.

S was an attractive, healthy boy who cooperated readily during

the examinations. He expressed a strong desire to learn to read more effectively and was willing to make any sacrifice necessary to improve his condition. He said that his reading was a serious problem to him because he was not permitted to be on the baseball team and that his poor reading might interfere with his going to college. S's ingratiating manner and self-confidence made it apparent that his teachers had "passed" him hoping that each succeeding year in school would bring a marked improvement in his reading.

Examination of S's eyes and ears revealed no irregularities or defects of any kind. Measures of height and weight and of general health disclosed a superior physical development. S's health history showed that he had recovered completely from several childhood diseases. His I.Q., according to the *Terman-Merrill Revision of the Stanford-Binet Test*, was 110. His vocabulary rating was that of a superior adult. He failed in all tests involving arithmetic, and appeared embarrassed even at the mention of arithmetic; when he was given the arithmetic problems, he became somewhat antagonistic and stated that he disliked mathematics more than reading.

On the *Gray Oral Reading Paragraphs*, S's score was the equivalent of the norm for grade 5.7. His reading was very slow and laborious. Again and again he would mispronounce a word and would correct it immediately. S's performance suggested that he had been given excessive amounts of profitless phonic training; he attempted hopelessly to sound out words, occasionally arriving at a phonetically correct but unacceptable way of pronouncing certain words. His embarrassment in reading was disclosed by a number of remarks such as "I can't read very well" and "I have never been able to read well." Encouragement and praise helped to establish self-confidence. S was especially pleased when the examiner commented on the excellence of his vocabulary. At that time, S asked, "Do you really think I can learn to read?"

The *Progressive Achievement Test* was administered. S's total score on the reading test equaled the norm for grade 6.4, while his grade equivalent for his total arithmetic score was 5.9. On the *Stanford Achievement Test (Form V)*, he achieved a grade rating of 6.1 in paragraph meaning and 6.8 in vocabulary.

S said that his first wish was to become a successful businessman in order to own a plane of his own. He stated that he might

also like to be an aviator or pilot after he finished college. His knowledge of airplanes was really remarkable. Part of this knowledge was attributable to his experience with his father's private plane. S's interest in planes was shown in many other ways; for example, he expressed an interest in collecting pictures of different kinds of planes and he stated that his chief ambition was to obtain a pilot's license.

When questioned about books he had read, S indicated that he owned a number of books about aviation, but he confessed that he had never completed a single book.

S had been promoted regularly throughout the elementary grades. After the fourth grade, his report cards contained comments concerning his poor reading ability. However, his marks were almost uniformly average. After S completed the elementary school, he entered the high school which his father had attended. Many of the teachers knew and respected his father and became strongly attached to the boy.

In high school, S's limited reading ability resulted in a greater and more serious problem. His father became disturbed when he was informed of his son's extreme retardation; he took S to a near-by reading clinic where a condition of muscle imbalance was diagnosed and treated. The clinic workers assured S's father that his son would probably make rapid gains thereafter in learning to read.

In the tenth grade, S seemed hopelessly inadequate. He developed a deep-seated resentment of school and a marked feeling of insecurity. After three unhappy months in the tenth grade, he was referred to the Psycho-Educational Clinic. At this time his vision and general health appeared to be satisfactory, but he was discouraged, insecure, and unhappy.

A relatively simple program of remedial work was undertaken. Three forty-five minute periods were devoted each week to this endeavor. After examining *Merry Hearts and Bold* and *The Brave and Free* (textbooks for the fifth and sixth grades), S decided that he would like to read some of the stories in each book. These stories were read silently; appropriate exercises in the accompanying practice books were then undertaken. After S completed each exercise, a discussion period followed in which he summarized the

story, commented on details, and corrected his own work in the practice book. After S completed reading about half of the stories in the two textbooks, he proceeded in a similar way to read and discuss stories in Hovious and Shearer's *Wings for Reading*.

Opportunity for further improvement was afforded by providing books for S to read at home. The first book selected was Emerson's *Mickey Sees the U.S.A.* Upon completing this book, he chose *Lassie Come-Home*. S was enthusiastic about both books — "the first books I have ever read through and enjoyed."

S continued to engage in daily remedial work during three months of the following summer. He read sections of Hovious's *Flying the Printways* and Roberts's *Let's Read!* He completed the *Skilltext* designed for high school students. One day he proudly announced that he had read several books outside class; discussion revealed that he had actually read and comprehended a varied assortment of books dealing with aviation and related topics.

S will return to high school with greater assurance of success. He has shown a marked improvement in reading different types of subject matter, and his voluntary reading attests to the development of an interest in reading and an inclination to read independently. It is probable that he will be able to realize his ambition to attend college.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

Degrees of complexity in case studies are revealed by the illustrations presented in this chapter. Some teachers may be able to make comprehensive case studies while others will be obliged to limit their work. The nature of the case study will depend upon the training and experience of the teacher and the time available. However, such efforts on behalf of the severely retarded reader cannot fail to provide teachers with a better understanding and an increased insight concerning pupils' needs. The quality of their teaching will be improved and their effectiveness as guides of children and young people will be enhanced.

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❧ CHAPTER X ❧

A Forward Look

— The Reading Process and the Teacher of Reading

THE author of this book has traced the development of practices in reading instruction from the colonial days in America to the present time. During the colonial period, the demands for reading skill centered in the ability to read aloud the Bible and other religious materials. With the passing of years, the amount of printed materials increased dramatically. Today, children encounter large numbers of newspapers and magazines, and have access through public libraries to unprecedented amounts of published materials.

INCREASE IN READING AMONG ADULTS TODAY

Since World War II, there has been an accelerated production of books and magazines. *Publishers' Weekly* for January 25, 1947, presents a chart disclosing a sharp turn upward. A total of 7735 new books and editions appeared in 1946, as compared with 6548 in 1945 (8). Moreover, the number of magazines increased greatly. Figures for sales of books and magazines also disclosed large gains.

One of the most significant developments of the past two decades is reflected by the popularity of the comics. The number of comic magazines has increased because, as is shown in Chapter II, this type of presentation has almost universal appeal. It is of interest that, despite the large demand for comic books and magazines, the publication of children's literature has not lessened. It is worth

noting that the number of really excellent books published yearly which are rich in the elements of surprise, excitement, and adventure has also increased. Accordingly, it is possible to offer children reading experiences which will redirect and extend the interest they so lavishly bestow upon the comics.

At the present time, the demand for books is very great. Many factors have operated to bring about the widespread interest in reading materials (16). World War II was undoubtedly a significant factor. During the War, men in the Armed Forces read many books and magazines. At first, they read technical books and volumes related to the progress of the War. Later, they turned more frequently to books on postwar planning and to discussions of personal problems. However, they read many biographies and novels. Chaplain Ellwood C. Nance reported in *Publishers' Weekly* (February 17, 1945) that there were more than two thousand libraries in the Army which contained over fifteen million books; and the Navy had more than five thousand libraries. Circulation figures for men in the Armed Forces showed a relatively high standard of reading and a liking for nonfiction as well as for fiction. Of interest, too, is the fact that hundreds of thousands of men took courses in the United States Armed Forces Institute. (10)

The following paragraphs, in *Publishers' Weekly* for August 16, 1947, describe a continued demand for scientific books and other serious reading materials:

"... men in school, industry, and business want *good* books on the subjects in which they are interested . . . written by authorities in their particular field. Books written for the layman by one who edits a scientific paper are not enough. Young men learned a great deal from schools in the Army and Navy, which gave them a start. Many of them wish to continue in radar, electricity, aerodynamics, etc. Therefore they want the best the publishers can give them." The changes most frequently mentioned by the dealers are a swing away from aircraft and shipbuilding books, and a growing demand for books about architecture and building and related subjects — carpentry, electricity, plumbing, refrigeration, house painting, and so on. Radio and electronics are also of high interest almost everywhere, followed by a variety of business books about advertising, accounting, secretarial work, and management.

Advanced mathematics (not the more popular kind of math book) and the more scientific treatments of atomic physics, physics in general, and chemistry are moving well from most technical book tables. So, too, are books of a very solid nature in the engineering fields.

In all these fields the booksellers nearly all report an endless call for the relevant technical and practical handbooks. (9, p. 606)

At the present time, the services of the public library are in greater demand than ever before in our history. American citizens are buying larger numbers of books, including inexpensive volumes and popular low-priced editions. Despite the increase in reading, the people of America are using new avenues to obtain information and satisfactions which once could be secured only by using printed matter. Through the radio, the average person tends to acquire news which was formerly available only through the press. The radio presents, also, analyses of the news and critical comments which are comparable to editorial writing in the newspaper. Moreover, the radio makes it possible for the listener to obtain, in a very short period of time, an excellent overview of current events. As a result of the combined influence of the press and the radio, the American people are probably better informed today on national and international matters than at any previous period. Boys and girls, like adults, are influenced greatly by the radio. Accordingly, teachers of reading should be quite as much concerned with teaching students how to select and listen to radio programs as with teaching them how to read newspapers critically. (16)

Teachers should bear in mind, also, that radio listening has become for some pupils a substitute for leisure reading. There are certain characteristics which give radio presentations a very strong appeal. For example, when adventure stories are presented over the radio, vivid sound effects reinforce dramatically the rapidly unfolding plot. By listening to the radio, boys and girls form pleasant associations with familiar characters that reappear in new situations. These and other factors contribute to the appeal of the radio presentation. Thus, it is clear that the teacher who seeks to interest boys and girls in reading materials of literary excellence must take into account the fact that pupils can obtain excitement and adventure without effort through listening to the radio (16).

Similar satisfactions can be obtained also by attending the movies. And movies have certain features which capture the interest of boys and girls. They present stories dramatically, utilize real characters, and employ exciting dialog. On the other hand, they require little or no effort, and do not penalize the poor reader by making impossible demands upon him.

*VALUES OF READING
AND OF AUDIO-VISUAL PRESENTATIONS*

Some people, observing the popularity of visual and auditory materials, are inclined to emphasize their values as substitutes for reading material. Let us see if there really are substitutes for reading. It appears that reading has unique values which cannot be so readily realized through other means.

Edgar Dale, in an article entitled "Is There a Substitute for Reading?" cites the following characteristics and values of reading:

1. Reading is a visual shorthand. Through this shorthand we can compress firsthand experiences into concepts, generalizations, or principles. It is upon such abstractions — compressed from direct experiences, films, conversations, and the like — that the higher mental processes depend.
2. Reading is a handy device. You need no equipment. The book, the magazine, or the newspaper suffices.
3. The pace of a reader is under his own control. He can stop and reflect on what he is reading. The pace of radio or films is dictated by the speed of the machine. We can often read [at a rate] twice as fast as the rate of speech.
4. Reading materials furnish a permanent record which can easily be reread, referred to again and again. The printed record is easier to check on than the film or the radio. (3, p. 2)

On the other hand, students of the reading process will be the first to acknowledge these characteristics of audio-visual materials:

They have power to build a greater common audience than does print. The twenty-five per cent of adults who have finished high school do not read the same books or magazines as the twenty-five per cent who have gone only as far as the sixth grade. But both listen to many of the same radio programs and see many

of the same movies. An illiterate audience will enjoy an interesting color cartoon on health as much as would a sophisticated college audience.

Audio-visual materials have unusual attention-compelling effect. They are seen in a darkened room, where all distractions are cut off and where attention is concentrated on a brilliantly lighted screen. (3, p. 2)

Accordingly, one should recognize the values of different media of communication and the need for correlating them so as to obtain the maximum benefits for the student. Dale inquires:

How can we make use of the inherent relationships of various media through the medium of language? How can we develop a multiple-media approach? The answer is quite simple. First of all, we must become much clearer in our teaching process as to what we are trying to do. Indeed, this clarity of objectives has probably been just as responsible for the effectiveness of Army and Navy teaching as has the variety of excellent media used by them. Furthermore, by clarifying purposes, we see more adequately the role of each of the media. . . .

Finally, then, an intelligent use of audio-visual materials need not affect the quality and effectiveness of reading. There is better reason for believing that reading material now thought too difficult for young people may be read effectively after richer preparatory experiencing through audio-visual materials. Reading, then, should become more meaningful, since the concepts and ideas will be more soundly based, more capable of evoking rich fringes of association. (3, pp. 3, 4)

From the above considerations, it seems that a primary responsibility of the teacher of reading is to correlate different media of communication so as to develop students who will select and interpret radio programs and movies with discrimination and who will also read critically. Through such an approach, the student will learn to employ information obtained through one medium to reinforce or validate facts obtained through another source.

Nor is there a justifiable reason to conceive of visual and auditory materials as substitutes for reading. There are, it is true, many poor readers in our schools. But the situation may be remedied, as has been pointed out repeatedly, by the provision of better

reading instruction during the initial periods and by the creation of developmental reading programs.

FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS IN READING INSTRUCTION

Throughout this book, the author has stressed the progress that has been made in the teaching of reading. There is much still to be accomplished. In hazarding to predict some trends in American reading instruction, the author would stress the possibility of future development in the following areas:

1. Greater attention will be given to the home and the attitudes toward reading displayed by the child's parents and by his siblings. Efforts will be made to provide the most advantageous atmosphere for language development before the child enters school. This movement will necessitate increased amounts of adult education and will require closer cooperation between the home and the school.

2. Readiness for reading will become a dominating concern of good schools at all levels of instruction. This interest will stimulate the establishment of preschool centers planned in accord with established principles of child development.

3. Reading programs will become increasingly "functional." Some schools have already made constructive efforts in this direction, but a much more general tendency to inaugurate "functional" reading programs will characterize education in the future. Such programs will be designed to assure every pupil an opportunity to acquire the reading habits and skills which fulfill his varied and changing needs throughout his school career. New objectives will stress the abilities needed to read and comprehend the materials of the different subject areas, and will stress also the use of reading materials to obtain an understanding of and a solution for personal and social problems. Practical skills such as those involved in using newspapers and magazines effectively will also receive increased attention.

4. The reading program will be extended to encompass systematic instruction in the junior high school and will include developmental reading programs for the senior high school and the college. Remedial programs will be regarded as temporary expedients.

5. Teachers will be better prepared to study children. They will be equipped with a thorough understanding of child growth, and will be competent in using techniques of child study to determine the interests and needs of pupils within every class. They will employ a variety of techniques in order to obtain different kinds of information about child development: the interview, objective tests, child study records, observation of behavior, and so forth. Information obtained through these approaches will be extended by data regarding each child's home background and his developmental history. Much greater consideration than at present will be given to the child's emotional reactions and his attitudes toward reading.

6. Knowledge concerning the interests of pupils will be regarded as essential in planning the curriculum. The principle of interest will receive due recognition not only in the elementary school but also in the high school and the college. The desirability of this approach is emphasized by Norvell who, after analyzing the selections commonly taught in the high schools of New York, concludes that "to increase reading skill, promote the reading habit, and produce a generation of book-lovers, there is no other factor so powerful as interest" (11, p. 536). To take this factor properly into consideration, he recommends that "three fourths of the selections in our current program be replaced with selections of equally high merit that children indorse." (11, p. 536)

7. Increased attention will be given to reading as a phase of communication. Teachers will conceive of reading as a part of a program concentrating on the development of *clarity* in communication. Accordingly, reading programs will be more effectively correlated with efforts to improve writing, speaking, and listening.

Throughout this book, the author has emphasized clarity in communication as a significant goal of instruction in reading. In the chapter devoted to promoting vocabulary growth, attention was given to the many meanings which words may have, to the way context affects and determines meaning, and to procedures for clarifying the meaning of conceptual terms. Suggestions were also offered for fostering critical reading. The significance of these approaches is being increasingly recognized and will undoubtedly become a consuming interest of good teachers in future years.

In a recently published book, Stuart Chase comments on the importance of the work of semanticists in promoting communication and straight thinking. He cites the remarkable publications of Alfred Korzybski and stresses especially this author's emphasis on five ingenious devices to help a person speak, read, write, and listen more effectively.

Indexes. When thinking about individual units in a category, particularly about individual persons, mentally affix an index number. Call them, for instance, Adam₁, Adam₂, Adam₃, to remind yourself that every unit in the category is different. No two men are precisely alike — not even identical twins; no two cows, no two ants, no two grains of sand are precisely alike. . . .

Dates. This little device serves a similar purpose. It consists in putting a date mentally or actually on a space-time event. The idea is to stop and remember that the situation *now* is not what it was one hundred years ago, or ten years ago; or, for that matter, ten seconds ago. Life is a process, irreversible and ever changing. America₁₇₇₆ is not America₁₈₆₁ or America₁₉₄₅. To speak of "the American way" as something fixed and eternal is to speak nonsense. What "way" were the majority of Americans following at the date you had in mind? . . .

"Etc." Sometimes I think that this little semantic gadget is the most useful of all. Every event has almost unlimited characteristics, and the "etc." forces one to remember this. Even the physicists must leave some characteristics out in analyzing an event — say the structure of a crystal. Social scientists leave out far more when they study, say, the effects of mass production on factory workers. The man on the street in ordinary conversation may leave practically all the characteristics out of the event he is discussing if it is at all abstract, and make a snap judgment based on his emotions at the moment. Observe that this warning goes much farther than "seeing both sides." A space-time event usually has an unlimited number of dimensions; to reduce them to two is the old "black or white" illusion into which most debaters pitch headlong. . . .

Quotes. Another device to remind ourselves that we are dealing with an abstraction of a high order is to use quotation marks around the term. They are particularly useful with such words as "democracy," "capitalism," "fascism," "liberty" — indeed with every term on whose meaning any two men are likely to

disagree. The quotes serve warning that this is a high order term and must be used carefully.

... Abstractions in their proper place are as necessary as food or drink. *One must be conscious of using them and careful not to abuse them* — that is the point the general semanticists make.

Hyphens. Korzybski's last mental device is the use of hyphens to tie words together when the things they represent are inseparable. "Space-time," for example, and "body-mind."

The important point about the five devices — *index, date, etc., quotes, hyphen* — is not so much to put them on paper as to get them into one's nerve currents so that one stops and thinks rather than rushing to an emotional conclusion. They are five little red lights bidding one stop, look, and listen. (1, pp. 256, 257, 258-259)

8. Reading programs of the future will employ more printed matter than in former periods. Readiness material will provide every child with an opportunity to begin to read when he is ready. The textbooks and related offerings, selected to meet the range of ability found within every class, will tend to insure systematic instruction at every grade level. Supplementary books will afford the pupil an opportunity to apply his reading skills in subject fields such as social studies and science. As the program unfolds, the practice book will be used to give each child the guidance and help needed to perfect the fundamental habits and skills in functional situations. Greater attention will be given to "readability." As has already been observed, the best guarantee of "readability" is the provision of subject matter which harmonizes with the children's experience. Edgar Dale has repeatedly pointed out that materials will be understood if they are at the experience level of the student. (2, 3)

9. Elementary schools of the future will have a central library and a school librarian. The school librarian will be thoroughly trained in child study techniques. Books will be suggested for use in the library and in classrooms as children's interests and needs dictate. The librarian will encourage teachers and pupils in the use of the library aids, reference books, catalogs, indexes, and bibliographies. She will also keep teachers informed as to new books

and as to the availability of visual and auditory materials of various kinds.

10. Through the foregoing types of development, we shall see the diffusion of a developmental philosophy throughout our schools. The spread of a developmental philosophy will bring a change in teacher training institutions. Child development and adolescent growth will be stressed to a greater extent, since it is only through a thorough knowledge of human development that such a philosophy may be put into operation. In addition, widespread opportunities for experience in observing children and in guiding their growth and behavior will be offered students-in-training. At no time in history has this philosophy been more urgently needed than it is today. "No previous culture has ever achieved a product more magnificent than the present body of natural and engineering science. This achievement is our hope, as well as our despair. The despair will not lessen until the techniques of modern science can be more sincerely brought to bear on problems of behavior" (7, p. 6). Since it is impossible to understand conduct and behavior at any age level without a consideration of antecedents, all adults concerned with the care of boys and girls will be encouraged to secure a more adequate knowledge of the growth of infants and young children. (7)

11. As one result of a widespread adoption of a developmental philosophy, increased attention will be given to individual differences. Many articles and books have called attention to the extremely large number of poor readers in our schools. Writers who cite the extent of reading retardation in elementary and secondary schools usually neglect to stress the great heterogeneity among pupils and the presence of large numbers of good readers. Our efforts are too frequently concentrated on helping the retarded or handicapped pupil. Of the hundreds of articles on reading problems appearing yearly, only a few deal with the good reader. Conspicuous indeed is the lack of educational provision for bright and gifted children throughout our schools. (18)

The failure to recognize the gifted is a result of a number of forces. The traditional attitude has been to regard the gifted child as peculiar, eccentric, or queer. The results of such thinking are far

reaching. Bright and talented children are sometimes shunned; occasionally they are looked upon with jealousy or with suspicion. In school many very bright children, responsive to the attitudes of others, hesitate to reveal their abilities.

It is to be hoped that a renewed interest in the bright and the gifted will attend a widespread dissemination of the facts concerning more than fifteen hundred gifted children whose growth and development have been studied over a period of twenty-five years by Lewis M. Terman and his associates. In a remarkable volume, *The Gifted Child Grows Up* by Lewis M. Terman and Melita H. Oden (13), the results of these investigations are set forth. Contrary to popular thought, the gifted pupil is shown to be a physically superior, attractive, and well rounded child — not the physical weakling and social misfit so often pictured.

In all his school work, the gifted pupil excels, and typically he is modest and well adjusted socially. Nevertheless, his general educational growth progresses at such a rapid rate that in the upper elementary school his knowledge surpasses that of children classified two or three grades above him. Almost every study shows that gifted children are offered little that is mentally or educationally provocative in the subject matter of their grades.

Although gifted children and young people do, as a group, make satisfactory marks in high school and college, Terman and Oden point out that a considerable number “languish in idleness” throughout the grades and high school, and fail to develop the ambition or work habits essential for profitable college careers. Moreover, the typical college offering does not challenge the gifted student adequately. Thus, Terman finds that about twenty per cent of gifted sophomores and fifteen per cent of gifted freshmen reach or exceed the median score of seniors. Reasonably, he proposes that we “quit accrediting colleges and accredit instead the individual student.” (14, p. 70)

Studies show that from 1920 to 1940 scarcely a beginning was made in recognizing and in providing for especially bright pupils throughout our school system. During World War II educational facilities were curtailed sharply and opportunities for gifted pupils were affected adversely. It appears that one of the greatest shortcomings of school systems today is their failure to recognize and

conserve human ability and talent. We need better prepared teachers, more abundant and varied materials of instruction, and generally improved conditions for learning, in order to avoid further waste of our greatest human resources — bright and gifted children and youth.

How can schools provide better educational opportunities for the gifted? Some educators have recommended a widespread adoption of acceleration, or grade skipping. Grade skipping is only a temporary expedient and a partial solution to a complex problem. However, a moderate amount of acceleration (as shown by several carefully made studies) is not usually attended by undesirable effects upon the gifted pupil. Indispensable also is enrichment in any program designed for gifted children. Yet in three decades surprisingly few enrichment programs have been developed in our schools. At the present time, however, there is a renewed interest in the formation of special schools in which enrichment of experience is planned for gifted pupils. Since the educational results of these programs have not been carefully evaluated, it is impossible to pass judgment upon the wisdom of this type of segregation. At best, such a provision could probably care for only a very small proportion of the nation's gifted children. But there are positive ways in which every teacher can contribute to the gifted pupil's education.

By testing pupils prior to instruction and by offering individual guidance, the teacher can make sure that gifted pupils will not waste time by needless repetition of skills they already have mastered. Studies show that the gifted pupil can save fifty per cent (or more) of the time ordinarily allotted to subject matter acquisition. In the fields of English and the social studies this time can be advantageously used for enrichment. These areas offer opportunity for developing worth-while projects, for creative writing, and for original work on research.

Perhaps the greatest single opportunity for enrichment resides in the field of reading. Studies make it clear that guidance is necessary, since the gifted pupil appears to neglect several areas of experience which are associated with wholesome growth and individual development. Guidance of the reading of the gifted should include the following practices: analysis of each pupil's interests, discovery

or development of a predominant interest, direction of book choice in accord with mental maturity, and an association of reading with other desirable activities.

The reading programs for the gifted pupil should be articulated in a language arts approach that recognizes the significance of written and oral expression. In the realm of writing, we need to readjust our teaching procedures so as to provide outlets for real interests and engender superior written expression. We should recognize also the value of discussion, dramatization, and other forms of oral expression as aids to individual development.

Good teachers everywhere are making and have always made an important contribution to the growth of capable students. In large classes, however, the pressure of excessive numbers of extremely retarded pupils, and other obstacles, are likely to cause teachers to neglect their responsibility to the gifted. We have seen that every teacher can do something to alter this situation. By offering abundant and varied opportunities for the bright and the gifted, teachers will find that the quality of the pupils' work will be improved and that their own satisfactions will be heightened and enriched. The future will undoubtedly include a greater emphasis on the needs of the bright and gifted pupil.

12. Another challenging, but neglected, area in teacher training will receive recognition. This area concerns the mental health of the prospective teacher. It has been shown that the mental health of the teacher is an important determiner of efficient instruction. A number of investigations have yielded data which disclose inferior learning in the classrooms of maladjusted teachers, while superior results are obtained in the classes of well adjusted teachers. Accordingly, attention will be given to the characteristics of the effective teacher and efforts will be made to develop better teachers as well as improved conditions for teaching.

A recent series of investigations has added corroborative evidence concerning the significance of the mental health of teachers. Approximately fourteen thousand letters were written by children on the topic "The Teacher Who Has Helped Me Most" in a contest to select an outstanding teacher ("Quiz Kids" Program, 1946) (17). The letters were examined carefully to ascertain the character

TABLE XXI

ORDER OF DESIRABLE TRAITS MENTIONED IN 14,000 LETTERS

(17, p. 345)

-
1. Cooperative, democratic attitude
 2. Kindliness and consideration for the individual
 3. Patience
 4. Wide interests
 5. Attractive personal appearance and pleasing manner
 6. Fairness and impartiality
 7. Sense of humor
 8. Good disposition and consistent behavior
 9. Interest in pupils' problems
 10. Flexibility
 11. Use of recognition and praise
-

traits of the effective teacher. The order of frequency of the traits cited is shown in Table XXI.

Of course, the pupils did not employ the foregoing terms to describe the teacher. For example, *cooperative, democratic attitude* was indicated by: "Miss X's class is just like one big happy family. I am not afraid of school any more." *Kindliness and consideration for the individual* was suggested by: "She is the kind of teacher that makes a fellow want to get up early and not play sick. If a fellow has a teacher like that, he can stand on his own feet." The following sentences illustrate the pupils' appreciation of *good disposition and consistent behavior*: "Miss X is always the same"; and "I'm sure she must have a temper as most people do, but I've never seen an example of it." Genuine spontaneous expressions similar to the examples cited were used to express the remainder of the traits stressed by pupils.

A second contest, conducted during the spring of 1947, yielded thirty-three thousand letters. On analysis, these letters corroborated in many respects the 1946 study, and demonstrated the significance of the foregoing traits as characteristic of the teacher who appeals most strongly to pupils. A few minor changes were noted in the trait order at different age levels, but the data were substantially similar in both investigations.

Another approach to the problem of trait analysis was used in the 1947 study. Samples were drawn at random from the letters,

and the frequency of negative or undesirable characteristics was ascertained. From this study there emerges very clearly the picture of the teacher whom children do not like and of the personality traits that alienate boys and girls. Table XXII presents these traits and characteristics in their order of frequency.

TABLE XXII
NEGATIVE TRAITS OR CHARACTERISTICS OF TEACHERS
AS CITED BY PUPILS
(17, p. 349)

-
1. Bad-tempered and intolerant
 2. Unfair and inclined to have favorites
 3. Disinclined to show interest in the pupil and take time to help him
 4. Unreasonable in demands
 5. Tendency to be gloomy and unfriendly
 6. Sarcastic and inclined to use ridicule
 7. Unattractive in appearance
 8. Impatient and inflexible
 9. Tendency to talk excessively
 10. Inclined to talk down to pupils
 11. Overbearing and conceited
 12. Lacking in sense of humor
-

Table XXIII gives the frequencies of the first four characteristics of teachers which by implication the pupils consider undesirable. The pupils' own statements are included. Analysis of these statements reveals the significance of stability, fairness, patience, and consideration for the individual. The teacher who does not possess these traits is unpopular or disliked. Of interest, too, is the overwhelming indictment of the bad-tempered teacher by the youngest group and the unfair teacher by the oldest.

Smaller frequencies were found for the remaining characteristics. Traits 5 and 6 appeared with an average citation of three. All other traits appeared less frequently.

The pupils expressed their disapproval of the *gloomy* and *unfriendly* teacher in the following way: "She [the good teacher] isn't an old grouch," "crab," "sourpuss."

The use of *sarcasm* and *ridicule* was disapproved by: "She never makes fun of any pupil before the class"; "She never tries to make a monkey out of you."

TABLE XXIII

STATEMENTS TAKEN FROM 200 LETTERS IN EACH AGE GROUP

(17, p. 349)

<i>Statements</i>	<i>Below 9 years</i>	<i>9 to 13</i>	<i>14 and over</i>
1. She doesn't yell, holler, scream, shout, get angry, mad, furious; fly off the handle; blow her top; pound the desk, fuss; fly into a rage, bite your head off.	12	9	5
2. She doesn't have pets.	1	13	19
3. She is never too busy to help.	2	5	8
4. She doesn't heap (or pile) on homework	6	5	2

From the foregoing analysis it is clear that the teacher disliked by pupils is one who is unstable and irritable; is arbitrary and dictatorial; engages in favoritism; assigns unreasonable homework; ridicules pupils before others; is cross and unfriendly; is impatient; and is pedantic and dull. On the other hand, the teacher who is able to help children most is one who is herself mentally well adjusted and free from intolerance and unfairness.

These spontaneous responses reflect the significance of a mental hygiene approach in the classroom. These pupils were appreciative of the teacher in proportion to the extent that she was able to provide conditions which offered security, individual success, shared experience, and opportunities for personal and social adjustment. The following excerpt from a letter by a second grade boy shows one pupil's appreciation of such a teacher:

I was a shy boy six years old when I started to school. Being with strange children was the biggest thing I ever hated to do in all my life. I was afraid to speak, afraid I would lose my hat or lunch or books, and was just afraid of everything. Mrs. F gave me a little chair at the little table where other children were writing, drawing, using colored crayons, and just making funny marks on paper. I sat there holding my hat, books, and lunch, afraid to move. I hated the whole outfit called school. She just went on not trying to make me do a thing. When anyone spoke to me I just looked at them. Every day I was at the little table watching the other children. By the end of the first week I had joined the

children in making funny marks with pencil and crayons. Mrs. F gave me a copy of number and writing work to do and left me alone. I kept wanting to do more work when I started and because she knew what to do she kept giving me more copy work to do, until I was not afraid to talk. I hung my hat and lunch in the right place and found so much fun in school all because Mrs. F knew so much about children and what is best for them. She made me not afraid of other children.

An eleven-year-old boy wrote:

I am getting along fine with my work and enjoy going to school very much. I am giving most of the credit to Miss X, who taught me during my third year in school. She really dug down deep and started me on the road to learning. Before this I hated school and everything about it. My parents had to drive me off every morning and every time I got a chance I skipped school.

I had often heard what a wonderful teacher Miss X was but I just couldn't make up my mind about her until I tried her. The very first week she made me understand very clearly that school was not a jail house or a cage in which children were kept all day without any privileges or good times . . . but a place where everyone could work together, play together, share together, and live together . . . when we worked, she worked; when we played, she played. She was right with us in everything we did . . . she was so patient and kind you could not help but try to learn. She was never too tired or busy when anyone in the class needed help.

The first responsibility of the teacher is, therefore, to provide a classroom atmosphere in which success, security, understanding, mutual respect, and opportunity to attain worthy educational goals are all-pervading. She will further safeguard growth by eliminating administrative, supervisory, or teaching practices which will disturb this atmosphere. And finally, she will be prepared to direct children's development in such a way that their emotional life will yield the maximum of human satisfactions and values. In this way, continuous hygienic growth becomes an ideal sought for every child.

In such a classroom, the mental health of the teacher is obviously a most important consideration. The teacher can help herself to a considerable degree in a quest for mental health. She can make an

effort to secure the necessary recreation, sleep, and nourishment to maintain physical vitality; she can cultivate friendship within and without the teaching profession; she can try to eliminate excessive and profitless worry; she can strive to avoid needless frustration and irritation; she can try to obtain highly satisfying experiences through some form of creative expression; she can seek identification with and participation in existing social units which are rooted in the life of the community; and she can establish membership in educational organizations which offer opportunities for the development, extension, and expression of her professional interests. These and other avenues offer opportunities for the type of self-improvement and personal growth which are demanded of every teacher who aims to practice mental hygiene in the classroom.

There is one highly personal and especially difficult obstacle which confronts the teacher in her effort to become a well integrated personality. Among all adults, personal adjustment depends in large measure upon the extent to which they can free themselves from a number of persistent infantile reactions and emotional compulsions. This consideration is of utmost importance in the case of the teacher, since the ideal of self which she holds should be expressed by the kind of personality which youth will find sufficiently attractive to emulate—not reject or avoid (12). The effective teacher is a person whose companionship, counsel, and advice are sought. Far too many teachers, consciously or unconsciously, hold an ideal of self in which deprivation and denials are powerful elements. Such a person tends to alienate children and young people. In order to alter this situation, the teacher should seek to reshape her ideal of self in accord with the requirements of a more wholesome life design. She will ask: “What kind of personality do I represent in my relations with youth? And what kind of personality do I wish to become in order to be of maximum help as a teacher and a friend of youth?”

Studies show that it is desirable for some teachers to modify or correct their own concept of emotional maturity, since their behavior suggests that they regard maturity as attained when individuals succeed in hiding all feelings (12). Maturity instead should be looked upon as a condition which children reflect from the behavior of adults who are spontaneously and genuinely responsive in human

relationships. "Only in so far as [the individual] can build a 'private world' compatible with the social life around him and free of distorting emotional conflicts and anxieties can [he] achieve maturity and learn to live at peace with himself and others." (5, p. 291)

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

It has been observed that the hygienic classroom is one permeated by a spirit of friendliness, sympathetic concern, and genuine affection. In such a classroom, happiness and success in individually suitable and challenging tasks are powerful contributors to wholesome personality development. A sense of "belonging" to a group is another psychological imperative in the creation of an atmosphere for effective learning. Similarly essential in promoting growth is the changing, evolving curriculum through which children may express, enrich, and develop their varied interests in terms of their unique needs. Throughout this book, reading has been presented as one phase only of such a curriculum. The essential principles stressed have been shown to apply to every subject and to every area of instruction. They are grounded in a respect for children and youth and in a sincere recognition of the needs and rights of every individual — the teacher as well as the student. Widely followed, such an approach will be a guarantee of great and far reaching gains in human welfare and human happiness. The reading process will then assume its role as a powerful factor in improving the welfare and in fostering the happiness of all our people.

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17. WITTY, PAUL

"The Teacher Who Has Helped Me Most." *Elementary English*, Vol. XXIV (1947), pp. 345-354.

18. —

"Thirty Years of Research upon Gifted Children." *Understanding the Child*, Vol. XVII (1948), pp. 35-40.

APPENDIXES AND INDEX

APPENDIX A

A LIST OF BOOKS FOR CHILDREN

The following list includes children's books cited throughout this volume. It contains books chosen by children as well as those found in bibliographies prepared by adults. A selected and graded list is given in Chapter VIII.

AESOP	<i>The Fables of Aesop. Told Anew and Their History Traced</i> by Joseph Jacobs. Children's Classics. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1923.
ALCOTT, LOUISA M.	<i>Eight Cousins.</i> Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1927.
—	<i>Jack and Jill.</i> Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1928.
—	<i>Jo's Boys.</i> Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1925.
—	<i>Little Men.</i> Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1924.
—	<i>Little Women.</i> Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1924.
—	<i>An Old-Fashioned Girl.</i> Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1926.
—	<i>Rose in Bloom.</i> Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1927.
—	<i>Under the Lilacs.</i> Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1928.
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- *The Boarded-Up House*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1915.
- *The Disappearance of Anne Shaw*. Garden City, N.Y.: Sun Dial Press, Inc., 1938.
- SEREDY, KATE *The Good Master*. New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1935.
- *The Singing Tree*. New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1939.
- *A Tree for Peter*. New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1941.
- SEWELL, ANNA *Black Beauty*. New York: Dodd, Mead & Company, Inc., 1941.
- SEWELL, HELEN *Blue Barns*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933.

- SEYMOUR, ALTA HALVERSON *On the Edge of the Fjord*. Presbyterian Board of Christian Education Philadelphia: The Westminster Press, 1944.
- SILLIMAN, LELAND *The Scrapper*. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Company, 1946.
- SLOBODKIN, LOUIS *Clear the Track for Michael's Magic Train*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1945.
- *The Friendly Animals*. New York: The Vanguard Press, Inc., 1944.
- *Magic Michael*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1944.
- SMITH, BETTY *A Tree Grows in Brooklyn*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1944.
- SMITH, E. BOYD *Chicken World*. New York: G. B. Putnam's Sons, 1910.
- SPERRY, ARMSTRONG *All Sail Set*. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Company, 1935.
- *Call It Courage*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940.
- SPYRI, JOHANNA *Heidi*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1923.
- STEVENSON, ROBERT LOUIS *Treasure Island*. New York. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1924.
- SWIFT, JONATHAN *Gulliver's Travels*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, Inc., 1909.
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- *Many Moons*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., 1943.
- TOUSEY, SANFORD *Buffalo Bill*. Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1938.
- *Jerry and the Pony Express*. New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1936.
- TOWNEND, JACK *The Railroad A B C*. New York: Franklin Watts, Inc., 1944.
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- TUNIS, JOHN R. *All-American*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., 1942.
- *Champion's Choice*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., 1940.
- *Iron Duke*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., 1938.
- *Keystone Kids*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., 1943.
- *The Kid from Tomkinsville*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., 1940.
- *Rookie of the Year*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., 1944.
- *World Series*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., 1941.
- *Yea! Wildcats!* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., 1944.
- TURPIN, EDNA *Three Circus Days*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1935.
- VERNE, JULES *Twenty Thousand Leagues Under the Sea*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1925.
- VINTON, IRIS *Laffy of the Navy Salvage Divers*. New York: Dodd, Mead & Company, Inc., 1944.
- WASHBURN, HELUIZ C. *Little Elephant Catches Cold*. Chicago: Albert Whitman & Company, 1937.
- *Little Elephant Visits the Farm*. Chicago: Albert Whitman & Company, 1941.
- *Little Elephant's Christmas*. Chicago: Albert Whitman & Company, 1938.
- *Little Elephant's Picnic*. Chicago: Albert Whitman & Company, 1939.
- WATSON, HELEN ORR *Top Kick, U.S. Army Horse*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942.
- WEHR, JULIAN (Illustrator) *Little Red Riding Hood*. Animated in color. New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, Inc., 1944.
- *Puss in Boots*. Animated in color. New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, Inc., 1944.
- WELLS, RHEA *Peppi the Duck*. New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1927.
- WHEELER, OPAL *Sing Mother Goose*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, Inc., 1945.
- WHITE, WILLIAM C. *Mouseknees*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1939.

- WHITE, WILLIAM L. *They Were Expendable.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., 1942.
- WHITEFORD, MARIAN and ANDREW *How Sandy Squirrel Got His Tail.* Chicago: Wilcox & Follett Company, 1945.
- WILDER, LAURA INGALLS *These Happy Golden Years.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1943.
- WOLO (pseud.) *Amanda.* New York: William Morrow & Company, Inc., 1941.
- WOOD, ESTHER *Silk and Satin Lane.* New York: Longmans, Green & Company, Inc., 1939.
- WOOLSEY, SARAH C. *What Katy Did at School.* Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1927.
- WORTH, KATHRYN *They Loved To Laugh.* New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1942.
- WYSS, JOHANN DAVID *The Swiss Family Robinson.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1924.

APPENDIX B

A SELECTED LIST OF CURRENT NEWS MATERIALS FOR CHILDREN OF THE ELEMENTARY GRADES AND FOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS*

Magazines for the Primary Grades

Child Life	Jr.
Children's Activities	My Weekly Reader, Numbers 1, 2, 3
Children's Play Mate Magazine	Plays
Jack and Jill	Wee Wisdom

Magazines for the Intermediate Grades

The American Girl	My Weekly Reader, Numbers 4, 5, 6
Aquarium	National Humane Review
Audubon Magazine	Negro History Bulletin
The Beaver	Our Dogs
Boys' Life	Plays
Flying	Popular Mechanics Magazine
Jack and Jill	Popular Science Monthly
Jr.	Radio and Television News
Junior Natural History Magazine	School Arts Magazine
Junior Red Cross News	Story Parade
Junior Scholastic Magazine	True Comics

Magazines for Junior and Senior High Schools

AGRICULTURE AND ANIMALS		CLUB ACTIVITIES	
Country Gentleman	J-S	American Photography	S
National 4-H News	J-S	Athletic Journal	S
National Humane Review	J-S	Junior Red Cross Journal	J-S
Our Dogs	J	National 4-H News	J-S
Your Farm	S	Philatelic Gossip	S
		Popular Photography	S
AVIATION		Safety Education	J-S
Air Force	S	Scholastic Editor	S
Aviation Week	S		
Flying	J-S	CONSUMERS' INTERESTS	
Skyways	S	Consumers' Research Bulletin	S

* For a more comprehensive and critical treatment of many of these magazines, see Laura K. Martin, *Magazines for School Libraries*, New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1946; also see N. W. Ayer and Son, *Directory: Newspapers and Periodicals*, Philadelphia: N. W. Ayer and Son, Inc., for the current year; and *Annual Magazine Subject Index*, Boston: F. W. Faxon Company.

Magazines for Junior and Senior High Schools

CURRENT NEWS AND CONTEMPORARY PERSONALITIES		HANDICRAFT	
The Atlantic	S	Popular Mechanics Magazine	J-S
Commonweal	S	Popular Science Monthly	J-S
Current Biography	J-S	HOUSEHOLD ARTS AND FAMILY INTERESTS	
Current Events	J	American Home	J-S
Current History	J-S	Better Homes and Gardens	J-S
Every Week	J	Good Housekeeping	J-S
Harper's Magazine	S	Hygeia	J-S
Junior Review	J	National Parent-Teacher Magazine	S
Life	J-S	LITERARY INTERESTS	
Magazine Digest	J-S	The Atlantic	S
Nation	S	Horn Book Magazine	J
New Republic	S	New York Herald Tribune Weekly	
Newsweek	S	Book Review	S
Our Times	S	Omnibook Magazine	S
Reader's Digest	J-S	Writer	S
Senior Scholastic Magazine	S	MILITARY ORGANIZATIONS	
Time	S	Air Force	S
Tomorrow	S	Marine Corps Gazette	S
United Nations World	S	NATURAL HISTORY	
Vital Speeches of the Day	S	Aquarium	J
World News of the Week	J-S	Audubon Magazine	J
Young America	J	Natural History	S
		Nature Magazine	J-S
FASHION NEWS		OUTDOOR LIFE AND TRAVEL FOR THE WORLD CITIZEN	
Mademoiselle	J-S	American Forests	S
Vogue	S	Americas	J-S
FICTION		Field and Stream	J-S
The American Girl	J	Holiday	J-S
American Magazine	S	National Geographic Magazine	
Boys' Life	J	and Geographic School Bulletins	J-S
Coronet	S	Outdoor Life	S
New Yorker	S	Recreation	S
Saturday Evening Post	J-S	Trailer Travel Magazine	J-S
THE FINE ARTS — ARCHITECTURE, DESIGN, PAINTING, SCULPTURE		Travel	J-S
American Artist	S	RADIO	
Design	J-S	Q S T	J-S
Magazine of Art	S	Radio and Television News	J-S
THE FINE ARTS — DRAMA			
New Movies	J-S		
Plays	J-S		
Theatre Arts Monthly	S		
THE FINE ARTS — MUSIC			
Etude	J-S		
Musical America	S		

Magazines for Junior and Senior High Schools

SCIENCE		Labor Review	S
Science News Letter	J-S	Negro Digest	S
Scientific American	S	Negro History Bulletin	J-S
		Survey	S
SOCIAL ISSUES AND CURRENT PROBLEMS		VOCATIONS	
American City	S	American City	S
American Hebrew	S	Business Week	J-S
Common Ground	J-S	Fortune	S

CURRENT NEWS MATERIALS — DESCRIPTIONS AND PRICES *

Air Force. Air Force Association, 1616 K St., N W., Washington, D C. Monthly. \$4.00 per year. Excellent illustrations. Designed for the dissemination of information among the personnel of the Air Force. Describes planes and discusses the activities of the Air Force.

American Artist. Watson-Guptill Publications, Inc , 345 Hudson St., New York 14, N.Y. Monthly, except July and August. \$4.00 per year. Excellent illustrations. Contributions from recognized artists. Biographical material and critical comments on American art.

American City. American City Magazine Corporation, 470 Fourth Ave., New York 16, N.Y. Monthly. \$4.00 per year. Contains short, interesting articles on municipal topics. A reference for information pertaining to the city, such as government, playgrounds, water works, traffic control, public safety, etc. Of particular interest to the student planning to enter the new professions related to municipal government.

American Forests. American Forestry Association, 919 17th St., N W., Washington 6, D.C. Monthly. \$5.00 per year. Excellent illustrations, many photographs. Emphasizes forest conservation. Discusses our forests as possible playgrounds for the nation.

The American Girl. Girl Scouts of the U.S.A., 155 E. 44th St., New York 17, N.Y. Monthly. \$2.00 per year. Good illustrations. A wholesome magazine addressed to the junior high school girl. In addition to stories, it contains a number of articles in the field of social studies and science. Also has features of interest to the adolescent girl, such as grooming and the development of pleasing personality. Excellent evaluations of current movies and radio programs. Official magazine for Girl Scouts, Inc.

American Hebrew. Joseph H. Biben, Editor and Publisher, 48 W. 48th St., New York 19, N.Y. Weekly. \$5.00 per year. Wholesome and constructive treatment of current events. Promotes better understanding between majority and minority groups.

American Home. American Home Magazine Corporation, 444 Madison Ave., New York 22, N.Y. Monthly. \$2.50 per year. Good illustrations. A magazine devoted to the interests of homemakers and home lovers. Contains much advertising of equipment for the home. For readers of modest incomes.

American Magazine. Crowell-Collier Publishing Company, 250 Park Ave., New York 17, N.Y. Monthly. \$3.00 per year. Good illustrations. Fiction and interesting descriptions of unusual personalities. Also discusses public issues.

* Each magazine included in the foregoing Selected List of Current News Materials is described in this list.

American Photography. American Photographic Publishing Company, 353 Newbury St., Boston 15, Mass. Monthly. \$2.50 per year. Excellent illustrations. Treats all phases of photography for the amateur as well as for the expert. Also of interest to art students

Americas, formerly *Bulletin of the Pan American Union*. Pan American Union, Washington 6, D.C. Monthly. English Edition, \$3.00 per year. Portuguese Edition, \$1.00 per year. Spanish Edition, \$1.00 per year. A valuable reference for information concerning Latin America. Scholarly discussions, statistical summaries, graphs, and charts

Aquarium. Innes Publishing Company, 129 N. 12th St., Philadelphia 7, Pa. Monthly. \$2.50 per year. Good illustrations. Of value to students interested in marine life.

Athletic Journal. Athletic Journal Publishing Company, 6858 Glenwood Ave., Chicago 26, Ill. Monthly, except July and August \$2.00 per year. Of interest to the amateur as well as to the professional athlete. Stresses physical fitness. Discusses athletic programs for high schools and colleges

The Atlantic. Atlantic Monthly Company, 8 Arlington St., Boston 16, Mass. Monthly. \$6.00 per year. Contains well written articles on a number of important topics, and a selection of good fiction, poetry, and essays. Significant in the history of American literature.

Audubon Magazine. National Audubon Society, 1000 Fifth Ave., New York 28, N.Y. Bimonthly. \$2.50 per year. Excellent illustrations. Scientific articles pertaining to birds

Aviation Week. McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, Inc., 330 W. 42nd St., New York 18, N.Y. Weekly. \$6.00 per year. Excellent illustrations. Articles by men eminent in the field of aviation. Addressed to manufacturers, but will prove valuable to teachers and students of aviation and of aeronautical engineering. Much advertising.

The Beaver, Magazine of the North. Hudson's Bay Company, Hudson's Bay House, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada. Quarterly. \$1.00 per year. Excellent illustrations. Describes past and present activities of the Hudson's Bay Company in the northern part of the continent.

Better Homes and Gardens. Meredith Publishing Company, 1716 Locust St., Des Moines 3, Iowa. Monthly. \$2.50 per year. Good illustrations. Covers such topics as gardens, food, and equipment; and remodeling, furnishing, and beautifying the home. For readers of moderate means.

Boys' Life. Boy Scouts of America, 2 Park Ave., New York 16, N.Y. Monthly. \$2.50 per year. Official magazine of the Boy Scouts of America. Contains stories appealing strongly to boys' interests; also articles on keeping physically fit, science interests, suggestions for making things, pictorial news items, and movie reviews. Selected advertising. Fiction may seem somewhat artificial to adult readers, but the stories continue to hold the interest of adolescent boys

Business Week. McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, Inc., 330 W. 42nd St., New York 18, N.Y. Weekly. \$6.00 per year. Subscriber's executive position and name of his company must accompany all orders. Published for business executives. Authentic information for students of commerce. Business conditions are graphically portrayed each week by means of a thermometer.

Child Life. O. H. P. Rodman, Publisher, 136 Federal St., Boston 10, Mass. Monthly. \$3.00 per year. Good illustrations. Contains interesting stories, poems, games, hobbies, puzzles, things to make and to do, children's writings, book notes, fashions, and proper food for children.

Children's Activities. Child Training Association, Inc., 1018 S. Wabash Ave., Chicago 5, Ill. Monthly, except July and August. \$4.00 per year. For the preschool child as well as for primary pupils. Large drawings and clear type. A few stories and a page of songs. Poems are featured also.

Children's Play Mate Magazine. A. R. Mueller Printing and Lithographing Company, 3025 E. 75th St., Cleveland 4, Ohio. Monthly. \$1.50 per year. Consists of stories, play materials, cutouts, songs, poems, games, puzzles, hobbies, and a children's own department.

Common Ground. Common Council for American Unity, 20 W. 40th St., New York 18, N.Y. Quarterly. \$2.00 per year. Stresses democratic ideals. Stories, articles, and poetry emphasize the brotherhood of mankind. Good photographs.

Commonweal. The Commonweal Publishing Company, 386 Fourth Ave., New York 16, N.Y. Weekly. \$7.00 per year. Viewpoints on social issues expressed by Catholic laymen. Intelligent and comprehensive interpretation of current news.

Consumers' Research Bulletin. Consumers' Research, Inc., Washington, N.J. Monthly. \$3.00 per year. Gives "analyses of commodities, products or merchandise."

Coronet. David A. Smart, Publisher, 65 E. South Water St., Chicago 1, Ill. Monthly. \$3.00 per year. Excellent illustrations. Fiction and nonfiction are "smart" and "literary." Popular with urban high school students. Teachers' guides available.

Country Gentleman. The Curtis Publishing Company, Independence Sq., Philadelphia 5, Pa. Monthly. \$3.00 for five years. Good illustrations and advertisements. A magazine for family use in agricultural homes. Contains scientific articles addressed to farmers. Has sections devoted to women's interests.

Current Biography. The H. W. Wilson Company, 950 University Ave., New York 52, N.Y. Monthly except August. \$4.00 per year. Excellent illustrations and photographs. Biographical information about contemporary personalities in the news. Valuable for reference material. No advertising.

Current Events. American Education Press, Inc., 400 S. Front St., Columbus 15, Ohio. Weekly (36 Nos.). Single subscription \$1.20 per year. A school newspaper for grade VII and above. Summarizes important news each week. Other interesting features are cartoons, a question box, jokes, "Who's Who in the News," "News in a Nutshell," "History Then and Now," "Smile Awhile," "How to Read and Study, A Self-directed Study Program," puzzles, and community projects.

Current History. D. G. Redmond, Publisher, 108 Walnut St., Philadelphia 6, Pa. Monthly. \$4.00 per year. Valuable reference material. Objective reviews of current affairs.

Design. Design Publishing Company, 337 S. High St., Columbus 15, Ohio. 9 Nos. \$4.00 per year. Emphasizes industrial techniques. Good illustrations. Useful for high school teachers and students of art.

Etude. Theodore Presser Company, 1712 Chestnut St., Philadelphia, Pa. Monthly. \$3.00 per year. Excellent illustrations. Popular among teachers and students of piano. Contains both modern and classical musical scores. Compositions vary in difficulty. Material for the beginner as well as for the more advanced student.

Every Week. American Education Press, Inc., 400 S. Front St., Columbus 15, Ohio. Weekly (36 Nos.). Single subscription \$1.20 per year. Reviews and interprets current

events. Contains sections on guidance, sports, science, and movies. Has a picture script and joke column. Published also in Braille by the American Printing House for the Blind, Louisville, Ky.

Field and Stream. Field and Stream Publishing Company, Inc., 515 Madison Ave., New York 22, N.Y. Monthly. \$2.50 per year. Contains information valuable to the hunter and sportsman, such as departments devoted to fish, woodcraft, dogs, photography, guns, game and fish laws.

Flying. Ziff-Davis Publishing Company, 185 N. Wabash Ave., Chicago 1, Ill. Monthly. \$3.00 per year. Good illustrations. Popular among high school boys. Contains accurate information on the technical phases of flying. Also has accounts of the personal experiences of flyers.

Fortune. Time, Inc., 540 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago 11, Ill. Monthly. \$12.50 per year. Special rates to active and former members of the United States Armed Forces. Concerned with the big business enterprises of America. Content and advertisements are beautifully illustrated. The *Fortune* polls have created much interest throughout the country.

Good Housekeeping. Hearst Magazines, Inc., 57th St. at Eighth Ave., New York 19, N.Y. Monthly. \$3.50 per year. Good illustrations. One of the most popular of the magazines addressed to women readers. Has regular departments on topics of interest to homemakers. Contains fiction also.

Harper's Magazine. Harper & Brothers, 49 E. 33rd St., New York 16, N.Y. Monthly. \$5.00 per year. Contains fiction, poetry, biography, comments on current political and social issues, discussions of radio programs and moving pictures, and book reviews.

Holiday. The Curtis Publishing Company, Independence Sq., Philadelphia 5, Pa. Monthly. \$5.00 per year. Photographs in color and in black and white. Features descriptions of various geographical regions. Has a number of departments such as a forecast calendar of significant world exhibitions and festivals, world wide weather reports for the current month, general news pertaining to the motion picture industry, and reviews of travel literature.

Horn Book Magazine. The Horn Book, Inc., 248 Boylston St., Boston 16, Mass. Bimonthly. \$3.00 per year. Good illustrations. Excellent annotated book lists. Biographical and autobiographical articles about authors and illustrators of children's books.

Hygeia. American Medical Association, 535 N. Dearborn St., Chicago 10, Ill. Monthly. \$3.00 per year. Of value to parents, nurses, teachers, and physical education instructors. Contains articles on healthful living, nutrition, and community hygiene. Often employs story form in giving information.

Jack and Jill. The Curtis Publishing Company, Independence Sq., Philadelphia 5, Pa. Monthly. \$2.50 per year. Excellent illustrations. Large print. Contains stories, poems, educational articles, picture scripts, cutouts, construction projects, and games. Enjoyed by children of ages six to twelve. No advertising.

Jr. Progressive Educators, Inc., 812 N. Dearborn St., Chicago 10, Ill. Monthly except July and August. \$5.00 per year. Addressed to boys and girls of ages six to twelve. A section of fiction contains stories of varying reading levels.

Junior Natural History Magazine. American Museum of Natural History, Central Park West at 79th St., New York 24, N.Y. Monthly. \$1.50 per year. Excellent illustrations. A supplement to *Natural History*. Suitable for nature study classes in the elementary school.

Junior Red Cross Journal Junior Red Cross, American National Red Cross, Washington 13, D C Monthly, except June through September. \$1.00 per year Employs writers of note. Valuable for classroom use in studies of geography, social problems, and language. Contains stories, plays, and pageants which emphasize social welfare.

Junior Red Cross News. Junior Red Cross, American National Red Cross, Washington 13, D C. Monthly, except June through September. \$0.50 per year. Good illustrations. Suitable for grades IV, V, and VI, with one story for the primary grades. Contains excellent stories and articles useful for social studies, science, and citizenship classes. Careers of service are emphasized A supplement guide for each issue is given to teachers.

Junior Review Civic Education Service, 1733 K St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C. 36 weeks. \$1.20 per year. A newspaper addressed to adolescent boys and girls Features current news and geographical locations; also contains book and moving picture reviews, jokes, tests, and articles concerning interesting personalities.

Junior Scholastic Magazine Scholastic Corporation, 7 E 12th St., New York 3, N.Y. Weekly. Student's edition, \$0.90 per year (32 Nos). Illustrated with photographs and maps Contains news of national and world events; also articles on science, aviation, sports, and films. Has puzzles, quizzes, and picture scripts.

Labor Review. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. Monthly \$2.00 per year. Accurate information in simple language Contains statistics and tables. Good for reference use.

Life Time, Inc., 330 E Twenty-second St., Chicago 11, Ill. Weekly. \$6.00 per year. A picture magazine with many good educational features such as accurate scientific articles and excellent art reproductions.

Mademoiselle. Street and Smith Publications, Inc., 122 E. 42nd St., New York 17, N.Y. Monthly \$3.50 per year. Good illustrations Popular with high school girls who wish information concerning styles and beauty aids Additional features are short stories, vocational articles, book reviews, and news of the theater.

Magazine Digest. Magazine Digest Publishing Company, Ltd., 60 Lowther Ave., Toronto, Ontario, Canada Monthly \$3.00 per year. One of the best of the general digests.

Magazine of Art American Federation of Arts, 1262 New Hampshire Ave., Washington 6, D.C. Monthly, except June through September. \$6.00 per year. Beautiful illustrations Interprets art broadly. Contains news of art exhibitions and reviews of literature on art.

Marine Corps Gazette. Marine Corps Association, Quantico, Va. Monthly. \$3.00 per year. Good illustrations and photographs. Pleasing format. Well written. Accurate information.

Musical America. Musical America Corporation, 113 W. 57th St., New York 19, N.Y. 16 Nos. \$4.00 per year. Good illustrations. Contains current news of the opera, symphony and other concerts, and composers. Of value to teachers and students of music.

My Weekly Reader. American Education Press, Inc., 400 S. Front St., Columbus 15, Ohio. Weekly. No. 1 is for grades 1 and 2; No. 2 for grades 2 and 3; No. 3 for grades 3 and 4; No. 4 for grades 4 and 5; No. 5 for grades 5 and 6; No. 6 for grade 6. Single subscription, \$1.20 per year. A weekly school newspaper containing current news, photographs, maps, picture scripts, tests, and articles on science, geography, and nature study. A teacher's edition is available.

Nation. The Nation Associates, Inc., 20 Vesey St., New York 7, N.Y. Weekly \$6.00 per year. The *Nation* has been an important chronicler and interpreter of American life and issues since the Civil War Reconstruction Period. Distinguished contributors. Excellent book reviews.

National 4-H News. National Committee of Boys and Girls Club Work, Inc., 59 E. Van Buren St., Chicago 5, Ill. Monthly. \$1.00 per year. Official magazine of the National 4-H Club. Popular among students in rural schools

National Geographic Magazine. National Geographic Society, 1146 16th St, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Monthly. \$5.00 per year to individuals. A profusion of beautiful educational illustrations, often in color. Valuable for reference material concerning the customs and costumes of people throughout the world. Contains news of explorations and scientific expeditions. Maps and pictures of geographic interest are obtainable through the National Geographic Society. The National Geographic Society also publishes the *Geographic School Bulletins*, which present current geographical news. Weekly for the school year, \$0.25.

National Humane Review. American Humane Association, 135 Washington Ave., Albany 6, N.Y. Monthly. \$1.50 per year. Excellent illustrations. Official publication of the American Humane Association. Conducts campaigns against cruelty to animals. Information on the care and training of animals.

National Parent-Teacher Magazine. National Parent-Teacher, Inc., 600 S. Michigan Blvd., Chicago 5, Ill. Monthly. \$1.00 per year. Official magazine of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. Articles on child care and education. Contributors are outstanding authorities on child development and child psychology. Book reviews and moving picture previews.

Natural History. American Museum of Natural History, Central Park West at 79th St., New York 24, N.Y. Monthly, except July and August. \$5.00 per year. Accurate scientific information given in readable style. Book reviews. Excellent illustrations.

Nature Magazine. American Nature Association, 1214 16th St, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. 10 Nos. \$4.00 per year. \$3.25 per year to libraries and schools. Excellent illustrations. Valuable for reference material.

Negro Digest. Negro Digest Publishing Company, 5125 Calumet Ave., Chicago 15, Ill. Monthly. \$3.00 per year. Excellent material for fostering tolerance and understanding between white and Negro peoples.

Negro History Bulletin. Association for the Study of Negro Life and History, 1538 Ninth St, N.W., Washington 1, D.C. 9 Nos. \$2.00 per year. Published as a supplement to the *Journal of Negro History*. Emphasizes the historical background of the Negro and his contributions to American culture.

New Movies. National Board of Review of Motion Pictures, Inc., 250 E. 43rd St., New York 17, N.Y. Monthly. \$2.00 per year. Good illustrations. Reviews moving pictures from a dramatic and social studies point of view. Contains interesting information concerning the history or mechanics of the motion picture industry.

New Republic. Editorial Publications, Inc., 40 E. 49th St., New York 17, N.Y. Weekly. \$6.00 per year. News and interpretation of national and foreign political issues. Book reviews and annual supplements pertaining to books.

New York Herald Tribune Weekly Book Review (Sunday Supplement.) New York Herald Tribune, Inc., 230 W. 41st St., New York 18, N.Y. Weekly. \$2.00 per year. Excellent book reviews of current publications including both fiction and nonfiction as well as children's books.

New Yorker. The New Yorker Magazine, Inc., 25 W. 43rd St., New York 18, N.Y. Weekly. \$7.00 per year. Comments on American social life. Interesting, provocative cartoons and some good fiction.

Newsweek. Malcolm Muir, Publisher, 152 W. 42nd St., New York 18, N.Y. Weekly. \$6.50 per year. Special rates to schools. Carefully summarizes and interprets current events. Clear, direct style. Tests, reprints, maps, and other supplementary materials are available.

Omnibook Magazine. Omnibook, Inc., 76 Ninth Ave., New York 11, N.Y. Monthly. \$3.65 per year. Authorized abridgments of four current best-sellers. Both fiction and nonfiction appear in the abridgments.

Our Dogs. H. Clay Glover Company, Inc., 551 Fifth Ave., New York 17, N.Y. 3 times a year. \$0.20 per year. Appealing illustrations. A commercial publication but contains valuable information on the care and training of dogs.

Our Times. American Education Press, Inc., 400 S. Front St., Columbus 15, Ohio. Weekly (36 Nos.). Single subscription, \$1.20 per year. Reports current news. Features material for social studies. Excellent for senior high school students.

Outdoor Life. Popular Science Publishing Company, Inc., 353 Fourth Ave., New York 10, N.Y. Monthly. \$2.50 per year. A journal for the dissemination of trade and technical information to the sporting goods industry and to sportsmen. Popular among high school boys. Contains information concerning fishing, hunting, dogs, the making of equipment, and the personal experiences of sportsmen.

Philatelic Gossip. D. E. Dworak, Publisher, Holton, Kan. Weekly. \$2.00 per year. Excellent illustrations. Contains information about stamps and stamp collecting as a hobby.

Plays. Plays, Inc., 8 Arlington St., Boston 16, Mass. Monthly, except June through September. \$3.00 per year. Contains short plays (royalty free to subscribers) for children from the primary grades to the junior high school. Extra copies of the plays are available. Simply written. Suitable for school programs.

Popular Mechanics Magazine. Popular Mechanics Company, 200 E. Ontario St., Chicago 11, Ill. Monthly. \$3.50 per year. One of the most popular magazines among boys in both elementary and high schools. Contains news about inventions and mechanical developments. Gives directions and diagrams for making useful articles. Good illustrations.

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Popular Science Monthly. Popular Science Publishing Company, 353 Fourth Ave., New York 10, N.Y. Monthly. \$3.00 per year. Good illustrations. Useful as a supplementary handicraft magazine in school libraries.

Q S T. American Radio Relay League, Inc., 38 La Salle Rd., West Hartford, Conn. Monthly. \$4 00 per year. Devoted entirely to American radio. Official organ of the American Radio League and the International Amateur Radio Union. Of interest and value to amateur builders and operators of short wave radios.

Radio and Television News Ziff-Davis Publishing Company, 185 N. Wabash Ave. Chicago 1, Ill. Monthly \$4 00 per year. Contains current news about electronics and technical radio and television developments.

Reader's Digest The Reader's Digest Association, Inc., Pleasantville, N Y Monthly. \$3 00 per year. Contains book condensations Provides numerous aids for the classroom Has popular appeal and large circulation Published also in Braille Teacher's guide available.

Recreation. National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Ave., New York 10, N Y. Monthly \$3 00 per year Contains information concerning community play, recreation, and fun at home and abroad.

Safety Education. National Safety Council, Inc., 20 N Wacker Drive, Chicago 6, Ill Monthly, except June through August \$3 00 per year Concerned with the health and safety of children Contains articles, plays, stories, and pictures on the theme of safety for all ages of school pupils.

Saturday Evening Post. The Curtis Publishing Company, Independence Sq., Philadelphia 5, Pa Weekly. \$6 00 per year. Good illustrations One of the most popular magazines among American readers. Addressed to the businessman. Contains fiction, biography, and timely articles.

Scholastic Editor. The Scholastic Publishers, Inc., 18 Journalism Bldg., University of Minnesota, Minneapolis 14, Minn. 9 Nos \$3.00 per year Official magazine of the National Scholastic Press Association and the National Association of Journalism Directors. Valuable to teachers and students interested in journalism. Gives practical help and suggestions concerning the publishing of school newspapers and yearbooks.

School Arts Magazine Davis Press, Inc., 44 Portland St., Worcester 8. Mass 10 Nos \$4.00 per year. Of value to teachers of elementary school arts Emphasizes craft work.

Science News Letter Science Service, Inc., 1719 N St., N W, Washington 6, D C Weekly \$5.50 per year. Summarizes in readable language and popular style current developments in science.

Scientific American Sciences, Inc., 24 W. 40th St., New York 18, N Y. Monthly \$5 00 per year. Contains information concerning scientific and technical developments Regular departments. More comprehensive than *Science News Letter*. Of value to senior high school students interested in science

Senior Scholastic. Scholastic Corporation, 7 E. 12th St., New York 3, N Y. 32 Nos. \$1.20 per year. Comments on current affairs and literature. Of value to high school history and English classes. Wholesome viewpoints.

Skyways. Henry Publishing Company, 444 Madison Ave., New York 22, N.Y. Monthly. \$3.00 per year. Interesting picture scripts and excellent illustrations Written in popular style. Concerned with the military use of air power Gives descriptions of various types of planes.

Story Parade. Story Parade, Inc., 200 Fifth Ave., New York 10, N Y. 10 Nos. \$3 00 per year. Excellent illustrations. One of the most literary of the children's magazines. Sponsored by the Association for Arts in Childhood and also by eminent educators

Survey. Survey Associates, Inc., 112 E. 19th St., New York 3, N.Y. Monthly. \$5.00 per year. Good illustrations. Accurate information concerning social problems. Sane discussions and interpretations. Distinguished contributors.

Theatre Arts. Stage Publications, Inc., 130 W. 56th St., New York 19, N.Y. Monthly. \$5.00 per year. Attractive format and illustrations. Gives news of the theater, biographical sketches, and reviews of books pertaining to drama. Valuable in literature and social studies classes.

Time. Time, Inc., 330 E. 22nd St., Chicago 11, Ill. Weekly. \$6.50 per year. Good illustrations. Summarizes current news in telegraphic style. Contains previews of plays and moving pictures.

Tomorrow. Garrett Publications, Inc., 11 E. 44th St., New York 17, N.Y. Monthly. \$3.50 per year. Attractive format. Contains news and idealistic interpretations of social issues. Book reviews.

Trailer Travel Magazine. K. D. Dixon Company, 35 E. Wacker Drive, Chicago 1, Ill. Monthly. \$2.00 per year. Good illustrations. Of interest to those who would like to travel in this way. Much advertising.

Travel. R. M. McBride & Company, 200 E. 37th St., New York 16, N.Y. Monthly. \$4.50 per year. Excellent illustrations. Devotes one page in each issue to the Bulletin of the National Travel Club. Contains information concerning travel, wild life, scenery, and social conditions all over the world.

True Comics. The Parents' Institute, Inc., 52 Vanderbilt Ave., New York 17, N.Y. Monthly. \$1.00 per year. Sponsored by *Parents' Magazine* in an effort to combat the comic magazines that are judged by many adults as undesirable. Format is similar to that of original comic magazines but content consists of picture scripts concerning the lives of heroes and eminent contemporary persons, as well as the plots of good books.

United Nations World. United Nations World, Inc., 385 Madison Ave., New York 17, N.Y. Monthly. \$4.00 per year. Ten or more subscriptions to one address, each \$3.00 per year. Reviews and interprets world news. Many distinguished world citizens are included on its editorial board.

Vital Speeches of the Day. City News Publishing Company, 33 W. 42nd St., New York 18, N.Y. Semimonthly. \$5.00 per year. The purpose of the magazine as stated by the publisher is to disseminate "the important addresses of recognized leaders of public opinion" in the belief that they are the "best expressions of contemporary thought in America." The publisher strives to "cover both sides of public questions and to print all speeches in full."

Vogue. The Condé Nast Publications, Inc., Greenwich, Conn. 20 Nos. \$7.50 per year. Excellent illustrations. Contains fashion news and articles on beauty aids and self-improvement; also reports news concerning the arts and the social world. Suitable for high school seniors.

Wee Wisdom. Unity School of Christianity, 917 Tracy St., Kansas City 6, Mo. Monthly. \$2.00 per year. Concerned with teaching broad religious concepts. Addressed to the young child. Attractive format and illustrations. Promotes worthy social attitudes. Has many suggestions for interesting activities suitable for young children.

World News of the Week. Newsmap of the Week, Inc., 1512 Orleans St., Chicago, Ill. Weekly. \$21.00 per year. Consists of one large sheet suitable for posting on a bulletin board. Gives information, illustrated with graphs and maps, concerning world news.

Writer. A. S. Burack, Editor and Publisher, 8 Arlington St., Boston 16, Mass. Monthly. \$3 00 per year. Reliable information concerning the techniques of, and the markets for, writing.

Young America. Eton Publishing Corporation, 32 E. 57th St., New York 22, N Y 32 Nos. \$1.80 per year. Comments on current news. Articles on science, vocational guidance, and hobbies. Each issue has one story for enjoyment. Also features movie reviews, crossword puzzles, book reviews, sports reviews, and tests.

Your Farm. James R. Rice, Editor and Publisher, 55 E. Washington St., Chicago, Ill. Monthly. \$3 00 per year. Pleasing format. Contains good articles on farm life and agricultural problems.

APPENDIX C

DIAGNOSTIC CHILD STUDY RECORD

Paul Witty and David Kopel

Northwestern University Psycho-Educational Clinic

Evanston, Illinois

Revised by Paul Witty and Ann Coomer, 1948

FORM VI. *Pupil Report of Interests and Activities* *

PART 1. Inventory

Name _____ Date of birth _____ Age _____

Grade _____ School _____ Teacher _____ Date _____

These questions are to find out some of the things boys and girls do and how they feel about certain things. Answer each question truthfully and as carefully as you can. If you do not understand a question, you may ask your teacher about it.

1. When you have an hour or two that you can spend just as you please, what do you like best to do? _____

2. What do you usually do:

Directly after school? _____

In the evening? _____

On Saturdays? _____

On Sundays? _____

3. At what time do you usually go to bed? When do you get up? _____

Are you usually tired in the morning? _____

Are you often late for school? _____

Do you have many headaches? _____

Are you absent frequently from school because of illness? _____

Do you cry often? _____ Why? _____

4. In the space below write the full names and ages of your close friends.

Underline the name of your best friend. Do you have many friends or few? _____

* Form VI. *Pupil Report of Interests and Activities*, Part 2, Children's Book List, may be found on pages 210-214; Part 3, List of Play Activities, may be found on pages 208-209.

Do you have a nickname? _____ What? _____ Do you like it? _____

What do you like to play best? _____

Would you rather play by yourself, with boys, girls, boys and girls? Underline.

Do you fight with your friends? Never, sometimes, often. Underline.

Do you have as much time to play as you would like? _____

If you have any brothers or sisters, how old are they? _____

Do you play with them? _____

Does your father or mother ever play with you? _____ What? _____

Do you like to be with your mother much of the time? _____ With your father? _____

5. To what clubs or organizations do you belong? _____

What do you do in your club? _____

How long have you been a member? _____ Are you an officer? _____

Where do you meet? _____ When? _____

Do you go to Sunday School? _____

Do you take any kind of special lessons outside of school? _____

What kind? _____ Do you like them? _____

How long have you been taking lessons? _____

Is there another type of lesson you would prefer to take? _____

6. What tools, toys, or playthings do you have at home? _____

Which do you like best? _____

Do you let other children use your toys? _____ If not, why? _____

Is there any tool, toy, or equipment that you especially want? _____ What? _____

Do you have a workshop? _____

Are you carrying on any experiments? _____ What? _____

Do you ever give shows? _____

7. Do you receive spending money? _____ Regularly or occasionally? _____ How much? _____

Do you have a job after school or on Saturdays? _____ What do you do? _____

How many hours each week do you work? _____

Have you ever earned any money? _____ How? _____

How do you spend the money you receive or earn? _____

Do you save money? _____ How? _____

Do you have chores or other regular duties to do at home? _____ What? _____

Do you enjoy these duties? _____

Do you like your home? _____

8. How often do you go to the movies? _____ With whom, usually? _____

What are the names of the two best movies you have ever seen?

a. _____ b. _____

Underline the kinds of pictures you like best:

comedy western "sad" news love serial
mystery gangster educational society cartoons

Who is your favorite actor? _____ Actress? _____
 If you were going into the movies, what kind of parts would you like to play? _____

What stage plays have you seen? _____
 Do you prefer movies or plays? Underline.

9. Have you been to a farm? _____ A circus? _____ A zoo? _____
 Have you been to a museum of art? _____ Other museums? _____
 Have you been to an amusement park? _____
 Do you ever go to concerts? _____ How often? _____
 Have you ever been on a picnic? _____
 Have you ever taken a trip by boat? _____ By train? _____ By airplane? _____
 By bus? _____ By automobile? _____ Where did you go? _____

Where did you go during your last summer vacation? _____

Underline *once* the places you *liked* and would like to see again; underline *twice* the places you *did not like*.

To what other places would you like to go? _____

Who takes you to different places, or do you go alone? _____

10. What would you like to be when you are grown? _____
 What would your father and mother like you to be? _____

11. What are your favorite radio programs?
 First _____ Second _____ Third _____
 How much time each day do you spend listening to the radio? _____
 To how many programs do you listen regularly? One, two, three, more. Underline.

12. Do you have a pet? _____ What? _____
 Are you making any collections? _____ Of what? _____
 Do you have a hobby? _____ What? _____

13. Do you like school? _____
 What school subjects do you like best?
 First _____ Second _____ Third _____
 Do you take any electives? _____ What? _____
 What school subjects do you dislike? _____
 What do you do best in school? _____

14. About how much time each day (outside of school) do you spend doing school work?
 _____ Do your parents help you with this? Never, sometimes, often. Underline.

15. Suppose you could have three wishes which might come true, what would be your
 first wish? _____
 second wish? _____
 third wish? _____

Have you told these wishes to anyone? _____ To whom? _____

Have any of your wishes ever come true? _____

Have you ever pretended to be someone else? _____ Who? _____

16. Do you dream at night? Never, sometimes, often. Underline.

What do you dream about? _____

Are your dreams pleasant? _____

Are you ever frightened by dreams? _____

17. What things do you *wonder* about? _____

18. Are you afraid of many things? _____

Name some of the things you fear. _____

19. Do you enjoy reading? _____

Do you like to have someone read to you? _____ Who? _____

Apart from lessons, about how much time each day do you spend reading? _____

Do your parents encourage you to read at home? _____

What are the names of some books you have been reading during the last two months? _____

Draw a line through the names of those books which you did not finish.

Do you have a card for the public or school library? _____ How often do you get books from the library? _____

How many books do you have of your own? _____ Name some. _____

What other books would you like to own? _____

About how many books are there in your home? _____

Underline the kinds of reading you enjoy most: history, travel, plays, essays, adventure stories, science, poetry, novels, detective stories, fairy tales, mystery stories, biography, music, art.

20. What newspapers do you read? _____

What parts do you like best? _____

Name the comic strips you read and underline your favorites. _____

21. What magazines are received regularly in your home? _____

Underline those which you read.

Name *your* favorite magazines. _____

Name the comic books you read and underline your favorites. _____

Where do you get your magazines and comic books? _____

FORM VI. *Pupil Report of Interests and Activities*

PART 4. Evaluation Guide

Name _____ Date of birth _____ Age _____

Grade _____ School _____ Teacher _____ Date _____

1. Underscore words that best describe attitude toward interview:

Friendly	Antagonistic	Cooperative	Uncooperative	Listless
Restless	Subdued	Animated	Easily distracted	

2. How long was interest sustained? _____
3. Was grasp of questions: Good? Fair? Poor?
4. Did child answer: Quickly? Slowly? Reflectively? Unreflectively? Or "just to say something"?
5. Did he: Volunteer information? Withhold information? Neither?
6. Do you consider information: Reliable? Unreliable? Why? _____

EVALUATION

1. Are opportunities for play: Ample? Average? Meager?
2. Is spending money: Ample? Average? Meager?
3. Is amount of leisure time: Ample? Average? Insufficient?
4. Are play interests: Consistent with age? Mature? Immature?
5. Are play interests: Consistent with sex? Inconsistent?
6. Is play ability: Good? Fair? Poor?
7. Does he play with other children: Well? Fairly well? Poorly?
8. Is he a leader or a follower? _____
9. Does he show in his play: Resourcefulness? Average ability? Lack of imagination?
10. Are reading interests: Consistent with age? Mature? Immature?
11. Do reading interests need: Stimulation? Curbing? Direction?
12. Is movie attendance: Average? Excessive? Rare?
13. Does he listen to the radio: An average amount of time? Rarely? Excessively?
14. Has he visited the usual places of interest? _____
15. Does he mingle with friends: Sufficiently? Insufficiently?
16. Does he crave more association with friends? _____

17. Does he need stimulation in making friends? _____
18. Is association with friends: Helpful? Harmful? Neither?
19. Does he crave more recognition than he is having? _____
20. Is he contented with imaginary roles in play? _____
21. Does he especially need adult supervision in play? _____
22. Is parents' attitude toward child's recreation one of Interest? Antagonism? Indifference?
23. What are the child's strong interests in reading? _____

24. What are the child's strong play interests? _____

25. In what important areas should the child read? _____

26. In what activities should the child be encouraged to take part? _____

27. Other suggestions and recommendations _____

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